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THE ADMINISTRATION OF COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTH

**BY
SHELTON PHELPS, PH.D.**

**GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS
CONTRIBUTIONS TO EDUCATION
NUMBER SIX**



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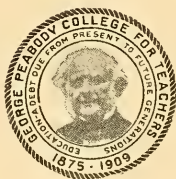
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in the Graduate School of Education of
George Peabody College for Teachers

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*For the Peabody
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PREFACE

This study of the administration of county high schools in the South was undertaken primarily with the hope of determining, so far as the facts found seem to warrant it, a conclusion, founded on something more than a personal opinion, as to whether the county, as a unit of secondary administration, should be advocated for high schools throughout the United States. The increasing prominence of the county, as a unit of supervision; the recognition the county has been receiving in recent legislation, as a unit of school administration; and the increase in the number of county high schools which have been organized during the last decade, were the further reasons for the study being made at this time.

Secondary sources are the bases for the study. Since they are in print and are carefully referred to in the dissertation wherever used, it was felt that, owing to the character of this particular study, greater accuracy could be secured by depending on them than on sources sought otherwise. In some cases it was necessary to supplement these sources by letters and by specific questions relating to the particular case addressed to high-school inspectors and to professors of secondary education in state universities. Where such data are used, the fact is always indicated in the citations of authority.

The method of study used was to take the important phases of high-school administration, which are chapter topics, and under these to collect and present the facts. The interpretation of these facts is then attempted, and this is followed by such conclusions as their interpretations seem to warrant. The answer to the question which the thesis presents is then sought from these conclusions. In the presentation of the facts, detailed data are not presented, since they are in print and can always be referred to by going to the source indicated. Only summaries which contain the phases of the distribution of the facts pertinent to the fundamental question involved are presented. The reader who wishes more detailed data than are presented can always find them in the sources indicated, and readers who do not wish to be burdened with them do not need either to wade through or pick their way around tables of such materials. Further, it is thought unsound to reprint secondary sources.

In such a study an occasional error is bound to creep in. Every effort has been made to keep them out and to pre-

sent an accurate array of facts as to what county high schools have done as a basis for the theses concerning them which are presented in the last chapter. In addition to contributing these conclusions, which may be useful in determining the unit of administration best adapted to secondary education, it is hoped that the study has emphasized the value of the method already described in reaching these conclusions.

CHAPTER ONE

THE INTRODUCTION

THE ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The Probable Origin of the Administrative Units of Secondary Education

One of the first questions to arise in studying the administrative units of secondary education is: Do these units seemingly grow out of the units employed in civil administration? A fairly satisfying answer can be obtained to this question by studying the correspondence existing between the administrative units employed in civil affairs and the ones employed in the administering of secondary education throughout the different sections of the country. If there exists throughout these regions what might be termed a "one-to-one correspondence," it seems a fairly safe conclusion that the correlation is causal, that the organization probably grew out of the same conditions in both cases, and that the factors developing the one unit were at least the most influential causes in developing the other.

In a study of the kinds of units, their chief general characteristics and the nature and character of their origin would be the points it seems most closely studied. What are they, and why are they? would be the questions most often before the student. A study of the number and character of the units of civil administration as the probable origin of educational administrative units will be first discussed.

Administrative Units in Civil Affairs

By a unit in both civil and educational administration, in this discussion, is meant the territory under a unified form of control. That a similar definition is not uncommon may be established by reference to certain rather widely known discussions. (Cubberly, "Public School Administration," pp. 5-10; U. S. B. Bulletin, No. 44, 1914, Monahan, p. 9; Woodrow Wilson, "The State;" James Bryce, "The American Commonwealth;" and Fairlee, "Municipal Administration," pp. 72-102.) The primary units of civil administration are the town of New England; the township of the Middle West; the county of the South; the independently chartered cities of various types and sizes, common to the several sections of the country; and the State.

The Town

The town, which Woodrow Wilson (Woodrow Wilson, "The State," p. 509) says is a lineal descendant of the Saxon practices in the days of Tacitus and Cæsar, and not an American invention, is peculiar to New England. Originally it was the collection of houses, with their outlying farms, constituting any one settlement. (Bryce, "The American Commonwealth," p. 561, Volume I.) In the development of the country these towns have come to embrace not only growing villages, but prosperous cities. But the most distinguishing features of the original town still characterize it. "The town meeting" (MacDonald, "Government of Maine," Section 30, and Hart, "Actual Government," p. 82) is still the source of control, and every individual in the town still may exercise his voice in that control. The officers of the town are still the selectmen, three to nine in number, a town clerk, treasurer, assessors and collectors of taxes, a school committee, and a constable. (Ibid, p. 567, and Woodrow Wilson, "The State," p. 51.) It represents, perhaps, the most democratic type of control found in America.

The County

The county, as a unit of control, is most highly developed in the South. While counties are found in other sections of the country, even in New England, they are not original units of control. They have rather developed from a synthesis of towns. In the South, however, the county has long been the unit of control, even as the town has exercised that function in New England. In a way somewhat similar to the one already described, the Southern county undertakes all local administration and has a complete set of officers. Usually the executive authority is centralized in a small group of county commissioners. (This body in some cases, as in Tennessee, can perhaps hardly be described as a small body.) They direct the other officers of the county, who usually are: treasurer, superintendent of roads, superintendent of education, superintendent of poor, an auditor, and a sheriff. (Bryce, "The American Commonwealth," p. 563; Woodrow Wilson, "The State," p. 517.) The county, as the unit of administration in government affairs, was, as Mr. Ingle says, "frankly undemocratic." (Edward Ingle, "Johns Hopkins Studies in Historical and Political Science," Third Series, pp. 97-199.) "The dominant idea was graduation of power from the governor downward, not upward from the people." The chief causes for this wide difference in the unit chosen for administration

were: The country where the first Southern colonies were formed was low and fertile, "with a kindly climate, deep rivers, broad stretches of inviting country, and a general readiness to yield its fruit in season." (Woodrow Wilson, "The State," p. 442.) These conditions of soil and climate offer as great a contrast to those of New England as that shown by the administrative units developed. There were other causes, however, that frequently are cited, such as: the fact that the settlers of the South were drawn more from the rural England, while those in New England came more from towns and cities, and that a different motive actuated the two groups of settlers. Whichever may have been the dominant reason, the simple fact of the matter is, there developed in New England the democratic town, while at the same time the South developed the less democratic county as a unit of administration.

The Township

In the Middle West and Northwest, wherever the New England settlers have gone, they have carried their idea of administration, and the town exists in modified form. (Bryce, p. 565), as a township. It usually came throughout the Northwest, however, later than the county and as a division of it, the result of the analysis of the county rather than the opposite situation, as described in the New England towns. The organization of the township varies with localities. In some places the "town meeting," only slightly modified, exists; in others, officers are elected at the regular county or state elections. Usually, as in Minnesota (Woodrow Wilson, "The State," p. 514), there are three supervisors at the head of a township. The functions of the township boards vary. In Michigan such a board has rather extensive power; in Illinois it is a committee of audit solely. Where township organization is found, county organization occurs in widely varied forms. Very often the division of labor throws upon the county the administration of justice and a general supervisory authority over the townships.

The City

The city, as a rule, depends for its administrative organization on special legislation. As a type, then, it presents many different forms. The authority in this unit is strictly delegated. In some cases, as in the case of the city and the county of St. Louis, cities have been organized entirely apart from the county in which the city is located. This, how-

ever, is far from the usual plan of organization. The chief administrative feature of city government that differs from county or township is the existence of the city council, which is a legislative body. In other features the administrative organization is not fundamentally different from that of the township. There may be an executive board of several commissioners; there may be none. Similar conditions prevail in townships, as has already been noted. (Ashley, "American Government," pp. 57-65.)

The State

Bryce says that our American States fall into five divisions. While each division possesses certain features peculiar to itself, they are in their administration more similar than dissimilar. Whether they are regarded as the unit, which when subdivided furnishes counties and townships, or whether they are thought of as a collection of such units, they are, so far as most administrative features are concerned, far more important than any other unit already discussed. They have supervisory power over the other units mentioned, and the great majority of the matters of important legislation, especially education, is left exclusively to them. (Wilson notes that of the dozen greatest problems of legislation before England during the last century, ten at least would have been settled by our states individually and would not have resulted in national legislation.)

The Unit of School Administration in New England

What is the unit of high-school administration in New England, with its town unit of civil administration? Histories of administration emphasize the historic importance of the district unit. This discussion is concerned only with the present units. An examination of conditions shows these facts. In Massachusetts the state law (Revised Laws of Massachusetts, relating to Public Instruction, 1915) provides that every town of five hundred householders must maintain a high school. Its support is derived from funds which the town (under penalty of fine for failure to do so) must raise. Its board of control is composed of three members, or any multiple of three as the town may decide, elected at the town meeting from its membership. The duties of this board are to select and examine the teachers and, in general, to exercise supervision and control over the school. *In Massachusetts the unit of high-school administration is the town.* In Maine (Laws of Maine, relating

to Public Schools, 1917) the high schools are maintained by the towns. They are supported by town tax, supplemented by special state aids. They are controlled by a town board of three, chosen at the town meeting, whose duties are: the management of the school, including the care of its property, the election of the superintendent of the town, and the confirmation of the appointment of teachers by this superintendent. *The unit of administration as specifically set forth in the law is the town.* The same law specifically abolishes the district unit. In New Hampshire (Laws of New Hampshire, relating to Public Schools, 1917), every town, under penalty of fine for failure to comply, as in Massachusetts, is required to appropriate sufficient money properly to maintain a high school. Its control is in a board of three, whose duties are to select teachers, to prescribe rules, for management, for studies, classification, and for the discipline of the school. "Each town shall constitute a single district for school purposes." (Ibid, p. 14.) In Vermont (Vermont School Laws, Acts 1915), every town must maintain a high school. Every town has a board of directors, consisting of three citizens of the town, who have the custody of the school equipment, who elect the teachers and town superintendent, subject to the approval of the State Commissioner of Education, and who recommend to the town meeting the amount of money necessary to maintain the school. "A town shall constitute a district for school purposes," the law definitely states. (Ibid, p. 7, Section 11.) In Connecticut (Connecticut School Document, 1916) high schools are established and maintained by towns. In every town there is a board of school visitors, three, six, or nine in number, as the town shall determine. They elect the superintendent and the teachers. This town board has power to form, unite, alter, and dissolve any subdivisions of the town as school districts. The administrative unit in Connecticut, then, is the *town*. In Rhode Island (Laws of Rhode Island, relating to Education, Supplement No. 7, Acts of 1916) the laws provide for the election of a town committee and fix the unit of distribution as the town. The school code of which this is the supplement fixes the unit of secondary education as the town.

An examination of both civic and educational administration in New England shows the unit of administration to be the town. It seems reasonable to conclude that the conditions which produced the civil unit, plus the traditions of its long use, and the additional advantage of having one system of administrative machinery serve for the various fields of administration, are responsible for the town's be-

ing the unit of administration in school administration. It seems equally reasonable to conclude that the merits and faults of the one will feature somewhat in the other. The principle of the New England town government which has excited the most comment is its thorough democracy. The corollaries have been the strongly developed local interest and a corresponding degree of decentralization. Without regard to their merits or faults, both these would be expected to appear in the educational administration where the town was a unit.

The County

The county, as a unit of school administration for secondary schools, is discussed at length in the next chapter. At this point it seems sufficient to observe that in its highest development it is found in that section where the county, as a unit in political government, is most often found—namely, in the South. It is found in other sections, but not as an exclusive unit, the parallelism with the status of the county in political government being very pronounced. In sections where the county is hardly developed to the point of recognition its part in educational administration is correspondingly negligible. It also would be expected that the same chief characteristic, more definite centralization of authority, would also occur in the administration of the secondary schools.

The Educational Unit of the Middle West and Northwest

In the Middle West and in the commonly called "Northwest" the prevailing unit will be studied through the study of a number of representative cases. An examination of the laws of a number of these states shows that in them the unit of school administration, especially when applied to secondary education, is most often the township. When the educational codes for Michigan, Wisconsin, Ohio, Indiana, Colorado, Utah, Washington, South Dakota, North Dakota, Iowa, Illinois, New Jersey, Arizona, and Pennsylvania were examined, this type of administrative organization was found. In a number of other states a unit of high-school administration growing out of the consolidation of districts may easily coincide with either the municipal or the congressional townships, thus making, in effect, the township the unit of administration. Illustrations of this latter condition may be found in the states of Missouri, Kansas, and Nebraska. An examination of several cases belonging to the first group shows the township the unit of educational administration in an original sense.

In North Dakota (General School Laws of North Dakota, 1915) the common-school district is any territory "having territory not less than a congressional township." Since high schools may be established in any district by majority vote upon petition of ten voters, and, further, since the controlling board is chosen from this same congressional township, it becomes the unit of secondary educational administration. In Michigan (School Laws of Michigan, 1917) the districts are formed by the township board, who may form townships into single districts. As it is the duty of the township board of education in these districts to establish and maintain township high schools, the unit for administering the rural high schools becomes the township. In Ohio (School Laws of Ohio, 1915) the district units are the city, the village, the rural township, and the county. Township boards of education establish high schools and, in general, control them. One of the three administrative units existing in the state is the township. In Indiana (School Laws of Indiana, 1915) the district unit is the township. There is one high school in each township having a property evaluation of \$600,000. There is a board of trustees elected by the township trustees, who have general charge of the school. In these states support of the township high school is divided among the township, the county, and the state. Certainly the support is less decidedly local than it is in the towns of New England. A closer scrutiny of one of these Middle West states shows more clearly the organization of the township unit.

The Community an Educational Unit

In a previous paragraph, discussing the educational unit of the Middle West and Northwest, it was pointed out that the consolidation of districts could oftentimes, and frequently did, follow the lines of municipal and congressional townships. It should be noted that perhaps they equally often disregard these lines; and while area, population, and administrative organization correspond rather closely to that of the township, they cannot be classed as such in the literal meaning of the civil unit. Discussions in later chapters show that the tendency to make the community the unit of administration where districts are consolidated is not confined to the states of the Middle West. In discussing this unit, however, the same state (Illinois) is used which will be used in the discussion of the township. One reason for this choice is that in this state the community is, in general, as often the unit as is the township. There are only twenty-seven counties in Illinois in which there is no

township nor community high school. Mr. Hollister, commenting on this type of unit (Bulletin No. 35, 1917, U. S. B., "The Township and Community High School Movement in Illinois," H. A. Hollister), names as the first advantage the uniting of town and county in maintaining a "truly democratic high school" for both urban and rural population. Another advantage which he stresses is the strong community interest which develops around them. One of the most interesting of these community high schools is the La Salle-Peru-Oglesby School, in La Salle County. It is not the intention of this study to discuss in detail this school. Such a discussion is found in the study quoted. (Ibid, p. 45.) This study is content to point out the community as a unit for reasons already enumerated and to point out the fundamental differences between it and the strictly township organization.

The Township in Illinois

For studying more closely the township, Illinois is chosen. It seems to embody the features characteristic of such an organization. It, perhaps, has fewer features that would tend to complicate the study than has any other state listed. Historically, Northern Illinois was settled by families originally from New England; Southern Illinois, by settlers from Kentucky and Tennessee. One group brought ideals and ideas from the New England town; the other group, the governmental plans of the Southern county. (Bryce, "The American Commonwealth," Volume I, p. 572.) While the Southern settlers came first and established the county, the New England influence, struggling for the town, succeeded as early as 1848 in legalizing township organization. This was again embodied in the Constitution of 1870. (Illinois Constitution of 1870, Article X, Section 5.) The school code of Illinois describes an organization for the administration of secondary education which is defined as a township unit. (School Laws of Illinois, Circular No. 126, 1917.) Its prevalence is illustrated in a quotation from Superintendent Blair (quoted from a personal letter received from Superintendent Blair): "The township high-school district is the prevalent administrative unit in Illinois for secondary education."

A school township, as defined by Illinois law, is a congressional township. The affairs of the township high school are administered by the township board of education, consisting of five members, serving for a term of three years. This board is elected at the same time and in the same way that the trustees of the township for the public elementary

schools are chosen. The first duty of this board, after organization, is to secure a proper and suitable location for the township high school. In the general administration of the school, this board has a very broad responsibility. To illustrate, they are entirely responsible for the selection of its teachers, for levying taxes, and for making the rules for the management of the schools. While they may, and perhaps most often do, accept the recommendation of the county superintendent or of the state high-school inspector, they are not legally bound to do so, the only legal checks upon them, in this regard, being the certification laws of the state and the check which the state department administers through inspection and state aids. Legally, at least, the major part of the administration of these schools is in the hands of this board. As to programs of study, entrance requirements, and privileges of affiliation with higher institutions, the same requirements for entrance and the same quantitative requirements for graduation are made that are made of the high schools administered through other units. It is true, in fact, that many high schools which were originally classed as town ("town" is here used, not with the New England meaning, it was given earlier in this discussion, but with the meaning commonly accepted outside New England—that is, being an urban community) high schools have reorganized, with the township as the unit of administration. While their administrative unit has been distinctly the unit which has cared for the rural secondary population, their programs of study have been evaluated on the same basis and they have enjoyed the same privileges from the University of Illinois as have the high schools in the urban communities. Their purpose, if the number on the accredited list of the state university and of the North Central Association, or if the close similarity of their programs of study, with their requirements for entrance and for graduation, are objective criteria, is not different. It is, in fact, in their administration that these schools differ from those of other units of administration. They exist for, and are administered by, the people of a township. Their chief control is in their township high-school board. Their chief support is in their taxable wealth of the township. They seem to be almost as close to the people of their unit as were the schools of the local district unit. Very little of its democracy seems to have been relinquished. Doubtless they retain most of the advantages, in the way of local interest, of the more democratic unit, and may also carry the weaknesses resulting from the lack of centralized administrative control.

General Situation Where Township Unit Exists

In general, that section of the country which in political administration shows the division of authority between township and county, shows a similar situation in educational administration. For the administrative unit in many rural communities, and in communities on the transitional ground between rural and urban, the township forms a much-used unit of educational administration, especially for secondary schools. This unit has, in fact, been more highly developed in this respect than it has in civil administration. (For a more detailed discussion of the township high school, see U. S. Bulletin No. 35, 1917; Hollister, "The Township and Community High School Movement in Illinois.")

The City Unit

The city, as a unit of secondary administration, will be discussed very briefly. As a civic unit, it exists in all sections of the country; as an educational unit, its distribution is equally wide. It exists where the county is the unit, where the township and county both exist, and where the New England town controls. Since its existence is universal, as far as this discussion is concerned, only one illustration will be discussed. In Kansas (The Common School Laws of Kansas, 1917) the city is recognized by law as a unit of educational administration, and its existence specifically provided. Cities of the first and second class (excepting cities between 50,000 and 75,000, inclusive; Ibid, p. 47, Chapter V) are organized as such. Their control is placed in a board of six members, elected from the city at large, who are in general control of both elementary and secondary education. Among their fundamental duties are the selection of a superintendent and of each member of the teaching force; to provide, as a part of the city budget, the necessary funds for the maintenance of, and, in general, to exercise final control over, the schools, checked only by certification laws, conditions necessary to participate in special aids, and the pressure of state inspection and classification.

The State

Like the city, the state, as a unit in some phase of the administration of its education, is universal. Largely for this reason, only one instance of a state, as a unit of secondary education, will be discussed—California. There, to a higher degree than in any other state, the idea of state control and state support seems to have been developed. Further, in their laws there has been definitely set forth the

status of this unit. It is, therefore, made the basis of this discussion.

The California High-School Unit, the State

In California the unit of secondary educational administration is very definitely the state. Not only is this true in educational practice, but it is also true in legal code. The Constitution (Constitution of California, Article IV, Section 25, Subsection 27), as well as the special educational code, provides for this. Enumerating a list of things which the legislature shall *not* do, it says: "The legislature shall not pass local or special laws in any of the following enumerated cases—that is to say." The twenty-seventh of these, for illustration, is: "Providing for the management of the common schools." When high schools are established, they are subject to control by a state board of seven members in the following matters: This board fixes the requirements for credentials for all high-school teachers in the state, and this, supplemented by inspection, works out almost as if the force were state appointed. This board adopts the textbooks for every high school, and must approve every program of study taught in California high schools. It is not these features, however, which fix the state as the administrative unit. Hollister says (Hollister, "High School Administration") that it is in support that the state as a unit is most strongly featured. California appropriates for high-school support fifteen dollars per pupil in average attendance, the attendance of the previous year constituting the basis for that apportionment. This is apportioned to the high schools as follows: One-third irrespective of the number enrolled or of the average attendance, the remaining two-thirds on the basis of average daily attendance.

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions seem warranted by the study of political and educational administrative units:

First: There is a very close correlation between the units of civil administration and educational administration employed throughout the different sections of the country. This correlation amounts almost to a one-to-one correspondence.

Second: The chief characteristics of the civil units seem to be featured in the educational ones. Where one feature, as decentralization of authority, appears very strongly in a civil unit, it usually appears correspondingly strong in the school administration of the same section.

Third: It seems reasonable to assume that conditions which were the chief causes in developing units of civil administration were also the principal ones in developing educational units. If certain economic, geographic, and racial conditions are responsible for any type of unit in civil administration, they would seem to be responsible for it in educational administration.

Fourth: The maximum value of any particular unit of educational administration will depend on its adaptability to the conditions named in *Three*, and that adaptability to the conditions named can be partly predicted by its success in civil administration.

CHAPTER TWO

THE COUNTY, A UNIT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION, WITH ESPECIAL REFERENCE TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The County, a Unit in Educational Administration

In the preceding chapter the different types of civil administration, including the county, were discussed. It was found that, partly because of geographical conditions and partly because of the habits which the original settlers brought with them, the county as a unit of civil administration has become universal in the South. Partly for the reason that it must serve an agricultural population and partly, perhaps, because of the existing administrative machinery, the county early established itself in this same community as an educational unit. While it is found in other sections, sometimes as a unit of elementary education, at other times as a unit of secondary education, always it has developed either from or in connection with another educational unit, which would be considered the original one. Not so, however, in the South. Here county oversight and control of education, in a number of cases, has evolved as an original factor in the general scheme of education.

Prevalence of the County Unit

As a unit of educational administration the county has long existed in Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland, and North Carolina. In Tennessee and Kentucky during the last decade the county unit has developed from the district as an original unit; and it exists in connection with other units, or developed from them, in at least three other states of the South—namely, in South Carolina, Texas, and Virginia. More will be said of the status of the county in these states in the succeeding paragraphs. For a preliminary grasp of the general situation it is sufficient to note that in twelve Southern states the county is the unit of educational administration. In fact, in all the states in what is commonly termed the "South" the county unit of control, as well as the county unit of supervision, prevails. In the border states it also prevails widely. Arkansas was the last of the Southern states to adopt the unit, and in Missouri, which is one of the most populous of the border states to continue the district unit, a bill was introduced in the last legislature (House Bill No. 871, Fiftieth General Assembly of Missouri) which, if it had been passed, would

put this state on the county basis. The bill, however, was allowed to die in the closing days of the legislative calendar, and the state remained on the list of those whose administrative unit is the district. In at least one state of the far West (Utah) the county exists as a supplementary unit of control. In a number of states in other sections the county unit exists in a form which Monahan has characterized as a "semi-county plan." (U. S. Bulletin No. 44, 1914; Monahan, "County Unit Organization for the Administration of Rural Schools.")

*Advantages of the County as a Unit of School
Administration*

Monahan selects as the chief advantages of the county unit for administration of rural schools these two: First, that it is the unit of supervision, legally at least, in a large number of states. (At the present time—1919—five-sixths of the states employ the county as a unit of supervision.) Second, in civil affairs it is the unit of taxation for all things but education. It would seem that these two advantages might hold good in the administration of all education under the control of these units. To these two reasons may be added these others: As is the case in the administration of civil affairs, the county seems to have developed in the more sparsely settled agricultural states. The county seems to have flourished in the South, partly at least, because it is adapted to the conditions found there. To these may be added one other, which is not the least important of the ones named—a reason which has, perhaps, been the basic reason actuating the school people who have been foremost in advocating the county unit as a reform. Local control through town and district has certainly meant the development of local interest and local enthusiasm for schools. Much that is good in the American system of education can undoubtedly be traced directly to these factors. They have, in fact, been the great contributing and distinguishing features of the system; but along with them, also, oftentimes, doubtless, there has existed local interference and local influences that have not made for the best results. The situation which Winston Churchill describes (Coniston, p. —) may too often have found its counterpart in fact and its existence due partly to the local unit of administration. As in civil affairs, the county is "frankly less democratic" than the smaller units of school administration, and is a step directly toward a more centralized administrative authority.

The County as a Unit in Secondary School Administration

"School laws," says Hollister, "are certainly the basis for all school administration. No discussion having to do with the administration of secondary schools, therefore, would be complete without some inquiry as to the legislation which stands back of such an administration." (Hollister's "High School Administration," p. 28.) Accepting this principle as providing a sound basis for the discussion of the county high school, its distribution and its administrative features, it is necessary to examine first the laws which established these schools. In general, legal provision for county high schools in some form was found in the states of Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

Alabama County High Schools

The county as an administrative unit in education has existed in its present form in Alabama since 1903. (Monahan, U. S. B. Bulletin No. 44, 1914, p. 23.) The county high schools were established in 1907, the Code of 1915 merely including the Act of August, 1907, which created these schools. (Acts of Alabama Legislature, 1907; an Act to establish state schools known as "county high schools," August 7, 1907.) The Code of 1915 made these provisions concerning the establishment and the administration of high schools (General School Laws of Alabama, 1915): The State High School Commission, consisting of the Governor, the Auditor, and the State Superintendent of Education, shall locate in every county in the state which has already secured a site of not less than five acres of land and has erected a suitable building, costing not less than five thousand dollars, a county high school. These high schools are under the control of the county boards of education, subject to the supervision of the State High School Commission, supplemented by the supervision of the county superintendents. The support of these schools comes from both the state and the county. In a subsequent chapter more detailed features of the administration, as legally provided, of these Alabama high schools will be discussed. The present chapter is satisfied to enumerate briefly these county high schools, establishing their distribution on the basis quoted from Hollister.

Arkansas County High Schools

The last Legislature in Arkansas passed a bill (Senate Bill No. 248, General Assembly, State of Arkansas) which

provides for a county board of education, consisting of five elected members. This board appoints the county superintendent, whose qualifications were specially provided in the law. . This county board will have "direction and supervision of all the public schools in the county." It will apportion school funds and form or combine local school districts. While the law does not provide for the establishment of special county high schools of the Alabama type, by implication high schools in Arkansas, along with elementary schools, seem to become county high schools in the sense that they are under county control. The bill becomes effective May, 1920.

Florida County High Schools

In Florida the county system of administration, as it is at present employed, is much older than in Alabama, the present system dating back to 1885. There is one feature of the county law in Florida which is especially noticeable. Even the schools of most of the cities come within the jurisdiction of the county boards. Not only is the county the original unit, but it can fairly be said to be the only one. A county board of not more than three members establishes high schools throughout the counties. (Digest of the School Laws of Florida, 1915.) These high schools are controlled in a real sense by the county board. Their supervision is supplemented by the county superintendents and by the state. These Florida county high schools possess some very interesting features in program and in administration, which will be discussed at length later.

Georgia County High Schools

The laws of Georgia (Georgia School Laws and Decisions, 1917) do not so specifically provide for the establishment of county high schools as do some of the others mentioned, particularly the Alabama Code. The administrative organization in educational matters is the county, having been so since 1887. (Ibid, p. 12.) In 1910 the General Assembly of Georgia amended the Constitution so that counties which had the right to levy taxes for instructing in the elementary branches only should have the right to vote taxes for educational purposes, thus, by removing the restriction, seeming to extend the right of taxation to include high schools. (Georgia Constitution, Article 7, Section 6, Paragraph 2.) This is the legal basis for the establishment and support of Georgia county high schools. It is the foundation for the development of the state-aided, "county-controlled" high schools which are included in the

Georgia report. That the counties have not done their full part in a support which is not mandatory is evidenced in the report of Prof. Joseph S. Stewart on "Secondary Education" for the year 1917. (Forty-Sixth Annual Report, Georgia, 1917, p. 236.) But the point here sought is that the secondary schools of Georgia are controlled by county boards, whose administration is supplemented by county superintendents, state boards, and inspection.

Louisiana County High Schools

In Louisiana the parish is the unit of educational administration. The Constitution (Article 250, Louisiana State Constitution) provides a parish board of education, as well as makes the parish the unit of administration. The parish board has the power to establish central or high schools when necessary, subject to the permission of the State Board of Education, a constitutionally provided body. The support of the high schools is divided between the state and the county. The parish board elects a parish superintendent and the teachers, who must, however, be certificated under the direction of the state board. As an illustration of how completely the parish is the unit of control, all the public schools of the Parish of Orleans (containing the city of New Orleans) shall be under the direction of the Orleans Parish Board, said board consisting of five members. (Public School Laws of Louisiana, p. 129.) The present plan of administrative organization has been in effect since 1870.

Maryland County High Schools

The Educational Code in 1912, in Maryland (Maryland Public School Laws, 1918, Chapter I), provides a system of public education for the state. It says: "Educational matters affecting a county shall be under control of a county board of education." It appoints a county superintendent and acts upon his nominations in appointing teachers. It determines educational policies for the county. It establishes high schools, subject to the consent of the state superintendent, whenever in their judgment it is to the interest of the county to do so. Support is divided between the state and the county. While the Code is more specific in the regulations pertaining to high schools than in any other Code mentioned before this, the administering of these regulations is through the county board of education and its appointee, the county superintendent.

Kentucky County High Schools

The legal basis for the county high school in Kentucky was provided in the Act of 1908, which provided for a county high school in each county of the state which did not already possess a high school of the first class. The county boards in the various counties have full power and authority to establish and administer these schools. Their support is divided between state and county, a specific county tax being mandatory. The administration of the board is supplemented by a county superintendent and a high-school inspector, who is Professor of Secondary Education in the state university. The State Board of Education is an ex-officio board, consisting of the State Superintendent of Education, the Secretary of State, and the Attorney-General. The administrative duties are, as set forth by code, confined to the "common schools" of the state. (Common Schools Laws, Kentucky, 1918, Volume II, Number 2, Chapter IV, p. 13.) The Act which established county high schools in Kentucky was part of the Act which replaced the existing district unit with the county plan of control, the county being subdivided into divisions and these again subdivided into districts. Subdivisions are either four, six, or eight in number, and the chairman of the subdivision board of trustees, consisting of one member from each district, together with the county superintendent, from the county board of education. This creates a board of five, seven, or nine members in control of secondary education in each county in the state. (Ibid. pp. 38, 45.) Thus while the unit of educational administration might be termed "semi-county," the unit of secondary administration is the county.

Mississippi County High Schools

"Hemingway's Code," the laws of 1910, provide for Mississippi agricultural high schools. The county board of education is empowered to establish for each county two of these schools, one for each of the races—white and black. The support of these schools is legally in the hands of the county board of five trustees. Their control is supplemented by the inspection of the state department and by the supervision of a county superintendent. But the real administration of secondary education is in the hands of the county boards. Mississippi has employed its present system of administration since 1903. Its agricultural high schools have existed since 1910. (School Laws of State of Mississippi, 1918.)

North Carolina County High Schools

The County Board of Education of North Carolina, which has general control of all schools of the county, elects a county superintendent and makes all the regulations concerning pupils and teachers, may establish a high school in any township in the county whenever said township shall vote the necessary special tax, or it may establish a high school in any special district, without respect to township boundaries, when the same condition has been complied with, and it shall establish in every county that has complied with the provisions of "The County Farm Life High School Law" a county farm-life high school. The support of all these types of high schools is divided between local unit and state, administered through the county. All are county high schools in that they are established and in general controlled by the County Board of Education. Some of its functions are delegated to school committees, appointed by it for subdivisions; but supervisory control is retained. The present plan of organization in general has existed since 1900; farm life county high schools, since 1911. (Public School Law of North Carolina, 1917.)

South Carolina County Control

In South Carolina in each county there is legally provided a county board of education, consisting of three members, whose duty it is to have supervisory control of the schools of the county. This board districts the county, certifies all teachers, appoints the trustees for the subdistricts, to whom the board delegates the general management of all the schools of their districts, subject always to the supervision of the county board. According to the legislative Acts approved March 10, 1919, any school district as described above may be established or a combination of districts may establish high schools. As the Code of 1916 provided that the board of trustees for the districts should be high-school trustees, the high schools are county high schools only in that the county board exercises supervision over the district trustees whom they appoint. High schools are supported by state aids and by local tax. (General School Laws of South Carolina.)

Tennessee County High Schools

The county high school in Tennessee (Compilation of Tennessee School Laws to June 30, 1917, p. 28, Article VII), is established by the County Court of the county "whenever it shall appear . . . that public interest requires

it . . . for the instructing of the children of said county." One or more schools may be established. They are to be maintained by a special levy, in addition to the state levy (five cents on the hundred dollars' worth of taxable property for high-school purposes), of not to exceed fifteen cents on the one hundred dollars' worth of all taxable property in the county. The County Court also has the authority to create a special fund from other county funds not otherwise appropriated, except from the public-school fund, to be used in the maintenance of these schools. The management and control is in the county high-school board, consisting of seven members, six of whom are appointed by the County Court for a term of three years. The county superintendent is the seventh member of the board. This board elects teachers and exercises general supervision over the conduct of the school. These high schools are classified and their programs of study prescribed by the state board of education. Through inspection and classification the board exercises general supervision over the schools. State law prescribes the minimum number of teachers, and confines their teaching to the high schools. The board is in almost full control of the high schools, except in the exempt city districts. Supplementary control is in state inspection and university approval. The system evolved from districts and dates from 1907.

Virginia County High Schools

Any county board of education or any district board of trustees may establish a high school in Virginia. The trustees for the magisterial districts are appointed, three for each district, by a school trustee electoral board. These trustees, with the division superintendent of schools, constitute the county board of education. (Virginia School Laws, 1915.) This is another illustration of what Monahan has called the "semi-county" plan. These high schools are not primarily county high schools by establishment, but are such in supervision and in a rather large sense in control.

Texas County High Schools

In Texas a county board of trustees of five elected members have general charge of the schools of the county, both elementary and secondary. One of the functions of this board is to classify the schools as to whether they are elementary or high schools. Another function is to promote and establish high schools where needed. Support is divided between county and special state aid. Since in the

working out the county board becomes almost strictly a high school board, although it legally has other powers, some of which pertain to elementary schools, these usually are delegated to district trustees; so in this sense Texas high schools are county high schools, though there are no special county high schools, which aim to serve a portion of the county not reached by other schools or to emphasize the teaching of a particular subject.

County High Schools in Other States

In a number of other states in other sections county high schools have been developed. They are grouped for this discussion, for it appears from a study of their development that their type of administration is somewhat different to the type in the section already described. They have been evolved from the combination of smaller units for the purpose of making larger ones which had proved unsatisfactory. While this is true in some of the states already discussed, as in Kentucky and Tennessee, it is less often true.

The county is legally a supplementary unit of high-school administration in Ohio. Any county board may establish a county high school and administer it. But any district board has the same privilege, and in the high schools already established the board of the district in which the high school is located controls; hence the county is merely a supplement to the existing administration so far as secondary education is concerned. (School Laws, State of Ohio, 1915, Chapter V.)

In Utah control of high schools is legally in the hands of the county board in the counties where county organization prevails. However, such an organization is on a local-option basis. Where it has been adopted, other boards being abolished, high schools are created and controlled by county boards.

In Wisconsin (Wisconsin Laws of 1915), Kansas (Laws Relating to the Common Schools of Kansas), Iowa (School Laws of Iowa, 1915), Michigan (State of Michigan, General School Laws, 1915), and in other states, county high schools legally exist in form and for purposes similar to those named above. There is no thought or wish to minimize these in this discussion, or to cause them to appear favorably or unfavorably in comparison to the ones first discussed. They are discussed thus briefly, and no attempt is made to go into their legal status individually, since this study is one of "County High Schools in the South" and not of county high schools as a general subject. There are many interesting and special features in these schools which

might be the basis for other studies. As one illustration, supervision in the county high schools of Ohio, which will be referred to again, might well be studied intensively, both as illustrating a unit of supervision and as to the results and working out of that supervision as far as those results can at present be estimated. Another illustration of a fact of unusual interest is the actual working out of the law in Iowa, which provides for the establishment of county high schools. While the law provides for a county board, which will establish county high schools when so elected by the county, in the actual working out it seems there has been very few such county high schools established.

SUMMARY

The county is the unit of administration most prevalent in the secondary education of the South. It appears in two classes—as the original unit of school administration, which has prevailed for a length of time and which has established the schools of the county; and it appears, as a second class, as a unit which has developed supplementary to the existing one, and for the purpose of administering the affairs of a special county high school for the people of the county. The first group appears almost exclusively in the South; the second group appears in a number of states in other sections. The first probably appeared in the distribution of education by the state to the people of widely settled areas through the available civil unit, the county; the second appeared as a relief from a too small unit, and appeared as an attempt to secure centralization of authority in school administration and a larger unit for taxable purposes.

CHAPTER THREE

THE COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL—ITS MAINTENANCE

Types of County High Schools in the South

A study of the county unit, with especial reference to secondary education, emphasizes one point. There are at least three distinct types of county high schools in the South. One, which for purposes of discussion may be called "type one," is typified by the Mississippi Agricultural County High School. It is a high school that has been evolved out of an existing system for the purpose of emphasizing some particular phase of education, and is under the control of the county board of education largely for two reasons: the county forms a convenient unit for administering this type of education, since it was developed as the unit of civil administration, and its administrative machinery already exists. Falling within this classification are, besides the Mississippi schools, the farm-life high schools of North Carolina and that portion of the Kentucky county high schools which are entirely under control of the county board of education and whose support is derived from the county. It is true that these schools in Kentucky constitute but a small portion of the entire number of county high schools. That the classification is not an arbitrary one, but is based on the one made by the inspector who has worked entirely through their period of development, will be seen in the subsequent discussion. "Type two" will be defined as a system of county high schools which provides for secondary education in the state and which includes the public high schools of the state, except in some cases those of the cities. Illustrative of this type are the schools of Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, and Tennessee. "Type three" can be described as a system of secondary education which developed under different units of control and which later centralized its administrative authority in a county board. This classification would include Virginia, Maryland, South Carolina, and Texas.

It is, perhaps, doubtful if there exists a really sharp basis for the classification which divides types one and two. On first appearance these two types would seem to be merged, and all the schools would be grouped under two divisions, of which type three would constitute one and types one and two the other. A closer study of this group, however, indicates a difference between a system of county high schools,

like the one in Florida, and a group within a system, as the North Carolina farm-life group or the small group of Kentucky high schools referred to. It should be borne in mind that this classification is an arbitrary one and is made for convenience in referring to certain groups in later discussion.

In discussing the maintenance of county high schools in this chapter the emphasis will be placed on the first and second groups. Type one, especially, is studied most closely as to the actual amount of funds received. In type two the funds received also are discussed. In the third group it is thought unnecessary to study more than the legal sources of support. This decision was based on the fact that the distribution of high-school funds in type three necessarily involves schools which, strictly speaking, would not be classed as "county high schools pure and simple." Where high schools have developed under various units and have later passed under county control, it is not the intention to include them in this study more than seems necessary to a fair presentation of the facts. The importance of the maintenance of these schools, and the further importance of discussing that maintenance from a legal standpoint, was set forth by Hollister in a brief summary. "Probably the most fundamental point in the legal status of public secondary education," says Hollister, "is to be found in the provisions for its financial support." It is with such an evaluation in mind that the legal bases for the maintenance of county high schools is sought.

In the following discussion the groups defined will be discussed in the order already named. Kentucky, Mississippi, and North Carolina, constituting type one, will be discussed first; Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, and Tennessee will next be discussed; and, finally, group three—Virginia, Maryland, South Carolina, and Texas—will be discussed solely from the standpoint of the legal provision for their support. Arkansas is not included in the discussion, as it is thought that the adoption of county control in that state is much too recent (approved April, 1919, to become effective after May 1, 1920) for anything like a permanent policy to have been determined. A rather careful study of the bill itself (Senate Bill No. 248, General Assembly of the State of Arkansas) confirms this conviction, for nowhere does the bill interfere with existing practice for maintaining high schools. It is, therefore, assumed that this becomes a matter of subsequent policy. As the new type of administration will, doubtless, evolve a number of changes of policy, the present legal bases are not included.

*Maintenance of Kentucky County High Schools—
Legal Aspects*

The legal provisions for the maintenance of Kentucky county high schools seem largely implied. (Common School Laws of Kentucky, 1918, Volume II, No. 2.) The Acts of 1918 provide that the county board of education shall distribute the funds received from the State Treasurer for paying teachers' salaries. The county must estimate the amount of money required for all educational needs of the county and place this estimate before the county fiscal court. The law permits as a maximum tax thirty cents on each hundred dollars' assessed valuation and a poll tax of one dollar. An additional "ad valorem" tax of twenty-five cents on the hundred dollars for local school purposes may be voted by any subdistrict. (County constitutes the district unit.)

*The "Working Out" of Kentucky Laws for Maintenance of
County High Schools*

McHenry Rhoads, High School Inspector for Kentucky, in his report for 1917 (Biennial Report, Kentucky, Department of Education, 1916-1917), defines a "county high school pure and simple" as one under the direction of the county board entirely and supported wholly by county funds. This definition would probably class as county funds the tax referred to in the preceding paragraph, which is levied by the fiscal court of the county, collected by the sheriff, and turned over to the county superintendent, who is the treasurer of the county board of education. In this discussion it is thought best to make use of the definition offered by Inspector Rhoads. There is no intention of offering these schools as all of Kentucky's county high schools, as will be seen in the later chapter on distribution. Mr. Rhoads points out that county high schools coming under this classification constitute a very small fractional part of the number of schools, which number has had, in the words of the report, "a phenomenal growth." It is also thought that "county high schools pure and simple" most resemble the ones in Mississippi and North Carolina, which are discussed in the next paragraph as type one.

In the report of total incomes and total amounts paid for teachers' salaries for 1917 these facts stand out:

1. All counties report total amounts paid out, while only twelve of the twenty-three designated in the list as county high schools report total incomes. Total amounts paid for salaries is the only item on which all schools report.

2. On total incomes annually the range in the twelve counties reporting is from \$640 to \$3,175. The median income, as shown by the same group, is \$1,770. (It should be pointed out that with only the twelve schools reporting, the P.E. in the above figures is nearly one-third the median and almost as large as the minimum value.)

3. One of the sources of income in these high schools is tuition. Ten of the twenty-four schools report tuition receipts ranging from \$5 to \$540. (The median amount is \$25, with a P.E. twice as large as the median and ten times as great as the minimum amount.)

4. The range in the amounts paid for teachers' salaries is from \$480 to \$3,480. The median amount paid out is \$1,350 (undistributed median). The P.E., even with all twenty-three counties reporting, is as large as the minimum amount and one-third as large as the median.

5. Twenty-one of the twenty-three schools report a cost to the county per pupil per year in county high schools ranging from \$23 to \$90. The median cost (undistributed) was \$40; the P.E., only one-third the median and one-half minimum cost. An illustration of the variability shown by data found on maintenance for type one high schools is shown by the following table, which also presents these facts briefly summarized as follows:

TABLE I
SHOWING VARIABILITY IN TOTAL INCOME, COST PER PUPIL, ETC., IN
KENTUCKY COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

	No. Schools Reporting	Maxi- mum	Mini- mum	Median	P.E.
Total income -----	12	\$3,175	\$640	\$1,770	545
Tuition -----	10	540	15	25	53
Total amount paid for teachers' salaries--	23	3,480	480	1,350	495
Cost per pupil per year to county-----	21	90	23	40	---

As it is the purpose of this table to show variability, it is not thought necessary to include an entire distribution of these data. Further, since the sources (indicated throughout the chapter) are in print, it seems unnecessary to reproduce those tables. Data concerning individual schools can be had by referring to sources indicated.

In the subsequent discussion of Mississippi and North Carolina, only the number of frequencies and the accompanying data will be given, without any attempt to evaluate them. In this case the probable error was pointed out merely to prevent any undue emphasis which might be given to these data and to avoid the appearance of having drawn any hard and fast conclusions from a paucity of data. The data are presented as they exist, and not as objective evidence to support any conclusions which they really would not justify. They are to be taken for their worth. They are illustrative, not proof.

*Maintenance of Mississippi County High Schools—
Legal Basis*

The law of 1910, which finally established the county agricultural high schools in Mississippi, makes these fundamental provisions for the support of these schools. (School Laws of the State of Mississippi, 1918, p. 18.) State support is provided for them, and is partly, at least, on the basis of the number of boarding pupils the school has. With less than thirty boarding pupils per month, the school will receive \$1,500 from the state annually. A bi-county school, with eighty boarding pupils, may receive \$4,000. Between this maximum and minimum range are at least three other classifications, all three of which are determined by the number of boarding pupils. In addition to this state fund, the county board of supervisors must levy a maintenance tax of not to exceed two mills on all the taxable property of the county. Separate from the maintenance fund, the board of supervisors may issue bonds to build and to equip these schools. Thus there are two general major sources of maintenance for these schools—state and county funds.

*Mississippi Agricultural High Schools—Funds as
Distributed*

There are (Bulletin No. 10, Part II, State Department of Education, Mississippi, "County Agricultural High Schools, with Course of Study," 1916-1917) forty-four of these schools and three more being built. From county levies they receive an average support of \$4,428. Each receives from the state not less than \$1,500, and a few receive the maximum of \$4,000. Their average equipment in lands and buildings is \$27,309. They expend for teachers' salaries yearly an average of \$4,015. On the average, local support, measured in dollars, is greater than state support.

North Carolina Farm-Life High Schools

The farm-life high-school districts, which may be school district, township, or county, must provide by taxation or otherwise annually \$2,500. This is separate from the funds for the establishment of the schools. After all the provisions of the law have been complied with satisfactorily, each high school may receive from the state \$2,500 annually. (Public School Laws of North Carolina, 1917.) In the twenty-one schools in 1917-1918 the state appropriations ranged from \$2,500, which four schools received, to \$110, which two schools received, the median amount re-

ceived being \$1,500 (undistributed median), seven schools receiving this amount. The funds received from the county school funds and from the county commissioners range from \$2,500, which four districts provide, to no funds (either no local funds provided by one county or none reported) in another. The lowest amount of local funds where they are provided is \$1,250, which occurs in four districts. The median (undistributed) is also \$1,500. In total funds for maintenance these schools range from \$5,800, which one school receives annually, to \$2,300, received by another. The median amount received is \$3,000, which is received by five schools. The twenty-one schools receive a total of \$73,723.35, of which forty-six per cent comes from the state. Forty-six per cent of the remainder comes from the county school fund and from the county commissioners, the state and the counties providing the same per cent of support. These schools represent an investment of a little more than a half-million dollars in school buildings and equipment.

Summary of Schools of Type One

These three groups of schools constitute the kind denominated as "type one" at the beginning of the chapter. They are county high schools, two of which, at least, are for the purpose of emphasizing some particular course or courses of study. In the case of the Kentucky group it can at least be said that they exist for a special administrative reason—that of reaching a group not reached by the regular system—and not as a part of the regular administrative plan. The next schools discussed will be the ones denominated as "type two," including Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, and Tennessee.

Alabama County High Schools—Sources for Maintenance— Legal Basis

The sources from which Alabama county high schools derive support are three—from the state, from the county, and from a matriculation fee. (There are some other minor sources which seem really subdivisions of these three.) Alabama counties receive funds from the state for the support of the public schools, which funds are apportioned on the basis of the school population. From this general fund the county commissioners are authorized to appropriate money to aid in buildings for county high schools and for their maintenance. (Acts of Legislature, August 26, 1909.) This appropriation is made on the basis that the county high school is a part of the public-school system, an interpreta-

tion which was stated in a ruling by the Attorney-General of Alabama, August 21, 1908. (Ruling by the Attorney-General of Alabama, August 21, 1908.) In addition to this state fund, the state appropriates annually to each high school \$3,000. The county must provide five acres of land for a site, and must erect a building which will cost not less than \$5,000. For maintenance the county may appropriate from the general fund or may levy a special tax.

Actual Receipts, Alabama County High Schools

The funds actually received by the fifty-seven county high schools of Alabama range from \$3,320 in one county to \$7,887.25 in another, the county high school which receives a median maintenance receiving \$4,205.25. As the state makes a flat-rate appropriation of \$3,000 to each school, that means that, from all other sources besides the state, the county having the minimum for maintenance raised \$320, while the one with a maximum raised \$4,887.25. Of the \$320 raised by one county, \$290 is the product of the matriculation fees, no money being listed as the result of appropriation of the county board of education or from the board of revenue or Commissioners' Court. (Report of the State Inspector of Secondary Schools, Bulletin No. 58, Alabama, Department of Education, 1916-1917.) In the other, \$1,142.50 is from matriculation fees and \$3,417 from the county board of education. In the median county, \$620 came from matriculation and \$500 was appropriated from the county board. The funds mentioned are wholly for maintenance, no money being expended for alterations of buildings or grounds in either the minimum or the median counties. In the maximum county, \$322.01 additional funds were so spent. Repairs and replacement of equipment was \$271.21 in the minimum county, \$224.42 in the median, and \$251.71 in the maximum. The total funds received for the maintenance of these fifty-seven schools was \$248,230.42. Of this, \$171,000, or nearly seventy per cent, was received from the state. Of the remainder, nearly ten per cent (\$23,771.51) comes from county boards and from boards of revenue or the Commissioners' Court. More than thirteen per cent (\$33,911.95) comes from matriculation fees. Of the total amount received, nearly eighty per cent (\$194,725.47) was spent for actual instruction, teachers' and principals' salaries.

Maintenance of Florida County High Schools

Florida laws provide for state support of county high schools (Digest of the School Laws of the State of Florida,

1915) by state taxation, by local taxation, and by special state aid. A special tax of one mill on all the taxable property of the state is levied and apportioned to the public schools, the unit of apportionment being the average attendance and the apportionment being made by the State Superintendent. In addition to the funds raised by this state tax, each county is required to collect every year a tax of not less than three mills nor more than seven mills per dollar on all taxable property. There are some other sources from which the county funds are increased. Some of these sources are: Interest from the state school fund, the net proceeds from all the fines collected in the county, and the proceeds from all the capitation taxes. All these funds are in the hands of and are administered by the county board of education. It is their business to apportion them among the various schools of the county, to provide for elementary education, and to set aside the funds necessary for the support of the county high schools. In addition to these, there is still another source of support for these schools—through special aid from the state. The law provides that every high school which maintains two years of approved work shall receive annually \$360. Every high school which maintains four years of approved work shall receive \$600. In the working out of these the high schools are not receiving these special state aids. Special aid based on an average attendance of eighty per cent having been declared unconstitutional, the other special aids referred to are not received by the high schools. (Ibid., note, p. 50.) The support received by the Florida county high schools for the year ending 1915, as shown by the report of Dr. Thackston, High School Inspector (Biennial Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction in Florida, 1916), is illustrated by these data. The total income received by thirty-six four-year high schools ranges from \$1,000 to \$19,000. The median amount received by these schools is \$4,057. Other than four-year schools, seven two-year and five three-year schools reporting, show a range in total income from \$600 to \$5,890, with a median support of \$1,540.

Maintenance of Louisiana Parish High Schools

Louisiana Laws (Public School Laws of Louisiana, 1916) provide that for the support of the public schools there shall be a state tax, which will be not less than one and one-fourth mills. To supplement these are the interest on the proceeds derived from the sale of public lands and the proceeds which may accrue to the state from bequests, estates without heirs, etc. All these funds shall be apportioned to

each different parish on the basis of the school population, to be apportioned by the various parish boards of education to the different schools. It is legally provided that in this apportionment no advantage be given to either elementary or to the high school, but that equal terms be provided for each. In addition to these state funds, the parish may levy a tax which in total shall not exceed the total state tax. The parish must levy at least three mills for school purposes. A poll tax which is distributed in the parish where collected is also added to the fund. Parishes which wish special privileges may, under certain restrictions, vote special taxes. As a still further supplement, the state appropriated out of the general fund, for the support of high schools, \$50,000 annually for 1917 and 1918. For these same years it appropriated for domestic science and agriculture \$75,000.

*Maintenance of Tennessee County High Schools—
Legal Aspects*

When a County Court in Tennessee has provided for the establishment of a county high school or high schools, it has the power to levy, in addition to the state levy of five cents on the hundred dollars for high-school purposes, a tax which will not exceed fifteen cents on the hundred dollars. The County Court also has the power to appropriate out of any county funds not otherwise appropriated, excepting the public-school fund, and to create thus a county high-school fund, to be used exclusively for these schools. The county board of education spends these funds. The fund is used exclusively for county high schools. (Compilation of Tennessee School Laws to June 30, 1917.)

Maintenance as it Works Out

In the working out of these legal provisions for the maintenance of county high schools of Tennessee, it is interesting to note the facts concerning their support. The report of Mr. Bourne, formerly High School Inspector for the State Department of Education, for the biennial period ending 1916, shows these facts (Biennial Report, Schools of Tennessee, 1915-1916): The county levy, as provided for, not to exceed fifteen cents on the hundred dollars, yielded amounts among the fifty-nine counties ranging from \$851 to \$55,161, the county occupying the median position receiving \$6,735. In addition to this fund raised by the county tax, there were additional county funds appropriated by the County Courts reported in thirteen counties. These

amounts range from \$10 to \$17,535, with the median county in the thirteen appropriating \$1,000. Tuition is also reported in thirteen counties in amounts ranging from \$28 to \$440, tuition for the median county being \$100. State support is reported in all fifty-nine of the counties, and ranges in amounts from \$347 to \$1,652. The inspectional mode is \$1,650, twenty-nine of the fifty-nine counties receiving this amount. This amount is also the median of the distribution. The total support in the fifty-nine counties for county high schools has a range of from \$1,663 to \$83,772. The county occupying the median position in the distribution receives \$8,126 for its total maintenance. The total support received by all the fifty-nine counties is less than one-fifth the amount received from county levies and appropriations.

Another illustration of the variability and other features embodied in the discursive treatment may be seen in the following summary table:

TABLE II

TABLE ILLUSTRATING SUMMARY OF VARIABILITY AND OTHER FEATURES OF MAINTENANCE AS THESE WERE SHOWN BY MR. BOURNE'S REPORT OF TENNESSEE COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Source</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Total Received by Fifty-Nine Counties</i>
County levy -----	\$55,161	\$851	\$6,735	\$403,599
County appropriation -----	17,535	10	1,000	31,377
Tuition -----	440	28	100	1,590
State -----	1,652	347	1,650	70,091
Total maintenance (all sources for all counties)-----				\$679,822

*Maintenance in Type Three, Georgia County High
Schools—Legal Basis*

Georgia law provides by amendment that the state may delegate to counties the right to levy tax for the maintenance of high schools. (Georgia School Laws and Decisions, 1917.) Formerly the Constitution prohibited the county raising taxes for educational purposes other than elementary. This levying of a county tax is not mandatory; and, according to Mr. Joseph S. Stewart, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Georgia, and High School Inspector, an imperative need is an amendment making it so. (Inspector's Report, Forty-Seventh Annual School Report, 1917.) The general state fund is apportioned to the counties on the basis of school population, and in turn apportioned to the several schools by the county board of education. The law does not specifically designate a basis for that apportionment, but leaves it to the county board to distribute according to their judgment. (Opinion of State Superintendent Brittain, rendered April

26, 1911.) In Mr. Brittain's 1917 compilation of the Georgia Code no mention of "special state aids" to high schools could be found; and Mr. Stewart, in the report already referred to, mentions this as one of the urgently needed pieces of legislation. It is concluded that special state aids for such things as attendance, the number of teachers employed, and special subjects taught, is not extended. In brief, state support of high schools in Georgia seems to come from the general fund, county support to be optional.

*Maintenance of South Carolina County High Schools—
Legal Provisions*

The laws of South Carolina (General School Laws of South Carolina, 1916) provide very definitely and very specifically for the maintenance of county high schools. Support is from two sources—local and state. The high-school laws provide that there shall be a local tax of not less than four mills devoted to secondary education. State support is supplied through a series of special state aids. One is based on the number of teachers employed. A school with two teachers shall receive not more than \$500 annually; one with three teachers, not more than \$600; one with more than three, not more than \$700. A second aid is for teacher training. There can be only one teacher-training school in the county, and the maximum aid that can be extended is \$1,000 annually. A third aid is for the teaching of agriculture in consolidated schools. It is provided that when \$750 is raised locally for this purpose the state will extend as a special aid an equal amount. To provide for these aids there was appropriated from July to December, 1916, \$35,000, and annually after that \$80,000 is provided. For agriculture there is annually added to this \$5,000.

Laws for the Maintenance of Virginia County High Schools

In Virginia the fundamental basis for high-school support seems local. This is illustrated in the support of consolidated districts provided for in the laws of 1915. (Virginia School Laws, 1915.) These are county high schools in the sense that they are under the county board as a unit of control. To maintain them, whenever the local district provides \$250, the state will provide an equal amount. Should more than \$200 be provided locally (up to \$400), the state will provide an equal amount. Supplementing this is a series of special state aids. One is for teacher training, and provides for the payment of the salary of the instructor in teacher training by the state. (There can be only one teacher-training school in a county.) Another

special aid is for the encouragement of instruction in agriculture, domestic science, and manual training in public high schools. These high schools, however, like the Georgia district high schools, are distributed by congressional districts, and hence cannot be classed as county high schools. For this reason both are excluded from this discussion. In brief, the public-school maintenance, as defined by law, rests upon state funds, county funds, and district funds.

Maintenance of Maryland County High Schools

In providing local funds for the maintenance of county high schools, Maryland law (Maryland Public School Laws, 1918) provides that the county board of education, assisted by the county superintendents, prepare annually a budget for all funds required by the schools of the county. The board of county commissioners are then required to levy a tax, not to exceed forty cents on the hundred-dollar valuation, to provide this. Supplementing this is the general state fund, which is apportioned to the schools partly on the basis of aggregate attendance. Most important to the county high schools, though, is the additional supplement to these funds in the form of special state aids. To distribute these aids, high schools are grouped into classes, determined by the number of pupils enrolled, the salaries and qualifications of principals and teachers, and the course of instruction. Inspection is the basis for determining this classification. High schools in the first class receive \$600 annually if they meet the requirements as to principal, \$300 for each of the first three assistants, \$400 for each of two special teachers, and \$100 for each high-school teacher until total state aid received amounts to \$2,500. High schools in the second class receive the same amount for the principal, but \$400 for only one assistant teacher, and the same for only one teacher of special subjects. For a third group of high schools which do not come up to the requirements for Class Two it is provided that the state will pay half the salaries of principal and assistant, with a maximum of \$500 and \$400 for the two state aids. In general, then, high-school support in Maryland is local, state, and special, with the last-named highly developed.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The study which has been made in the present chapter shows that: On the basis of maintenance there are at least three groups of county high schools in the South. These may be briefly described as: A group, where special maintenance funds are employed to emphasize or develop some

special subject; a second group, where the school is maintained to supply secondary education to a portion of the population, usually rural, not reached by the high schools of the county already existing; and still a third group, where the high schools of the county have either developed under county control or, having developed, have later passed under county control as a step in centralization of authority. Another fact indicated by this study is that the maintenance for these schools in the different states is about the same, but that the amount of support received from local sources, when compared to other sources, differs widely. In some of the states studied the amount of support derived from state and from local sources is approximately equal. In at least one other, with a flat-rate state aid, which distributes state aid equally to the different schools, there is a very wide range in the amounts of local support. It would be absurd to attempt to draw any conclusion from the wide range of variation existing in total maintenance received, unless the whole secondary-school situation was well known. A thorough analysis of the factors of secondary population, of existing facilities for support, both economic and social, would be necessary before such a conclusion could have meaning. While this is true when the state extends equal aid to all counties, and yet so wide a variation exists in local funds, the question must inevitably arise: Are both procedures working toward the establishment of equality of opportunity in secondary education? While the time-honored policy of matching dollar for dollar between state and community may be wholly undesirable to meet certain conditions, there remains unanswered the question: Does a flat rate in state aid call forth a maximum of effort from the community? There should be, according to expert opinion on secondary education, two great guiding principles in the granting of special aids to high schools—(1) to as nearly as possible equalize opportunities within the state, and (2) to avoid an approach to that state of helplessness which would follow a too paternalistic distribution of state aid. To accomplish these things, it seems necessary that the aid received be directly proportional to the effort put forth. It must, of course, be said that effort is not measured in the absolute amount of money raised. Local interest, it is believed, would be increased by local units contributing a considerable part of the support, and American secondary education cannot afford to lose that interest.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISTRIBUTION AND ADMINISTRATION OF COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

Maintenance as a Basis for the Distribution of County High Schools

The preceding chapter discussed rather in detail the support extended to county high schools. The legal basis for that maintenance was emphasized, since the development of any system of schools seems primarily dependent on the provisions made for their maintenance. If this is true for school systems in general, it would seem to be especially true of any special development in the system. No matter how carefully or how elaborately a project in educational administration is planned, its development and its distribution must be conditioned by the effectiveness of the provision included for its support. It would seem plausible that a flat rate of state support to the counties would at least result in a distribution that would bring one school to each county. It might seem, on the other hand, that state support, which could be secured only by the county "matching dollars," might conceivably result in putting the aid out of reach of some counties. To offset this is the spur to local incentive. An aid that calls for answering effort on the part of the county should result in a greater local interest and endeavor than one which does not. The only question, it seems, would be: Are there many cases where to raise a stipulated sum means many times the effort to one county that it does to another, even if it is economically possible for all counties concerned? Does such a question tend to equalize educational opportunity among the several counties? On the other hand, could this answering effort on the part of the county come in other terms than those of dollars? Cannot the richer counties of the state afford to contribute to the education of the children of less wealthy counties if they are only sure that these counties are putting forth all efforts to make the most from these aids? Surely if the purpose of education is to benefit the society of the state, they can. If this effort is made in securing the largest attendance from the largest per cent of the school population, the local interest could be secured without incurring the danger of the bar of economic inability. In some of the states a total day's attended unit has been employed. (Missouri School Laws, 1913.) In either case

the effort called for is not economic. All of these methods of apportionment of maintenance are illustrated in the preceding chapter. The present chapter will study the distribution of schools under the several plans of support.

Method of Studying Distribution

For the study of distribution the same classification of schools will be used that was used in the last chapter. For convenience, the small group of Kentucky county high schools, the Mississippi agricultural high schools, and the farm-life high schools of North Carolina will be considered as constituting group one; the schools of Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, and Tennessee will form a second group; and the schools of Georgia, South Carolina, Texas, Maryland, and Virginia will make up the third. In studying the distribution of schools, the number of schools per state will be sought, the number per county, and the units of area and of population each represents. In addition to distribution, the administrative organization, including control and plan of supervision, will be studied.

Kentucky County High Schools—Their Administration

The legal control of county high schools in Kentucky is vested in the county board of education. The first right—that of establishment—is in the county board. It also hires and fixes the salaries of the high-school teachers, and it fixes the course of study to be pursued, provided that the course be up to the standard prescribed by the State Board of Education. The State Board of Education prepares the course of study for first-class high schools. A first-class high school is one that maintains a four-year course of study, the one prescribed by the State Board of Education; a second-class high school maintains, legally, three years of the prescribed four-year course; and a third-class high school maintains two years of the same course. (Common School Laws of Kentucky, 1918, p. 109.) The officers of administration are the officers of these two boards. The county superintendent is chairman ex officio of the county board of education, as well as its most active officer; the officers of the State Department who are officers of the state board are others; and the State High School Inspector, from the state university, another. In the organization of administration the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who is chairman of the State Board of Education, is at the head. Below him—or, really, to one side—is the Inspector of High Schools. Since this officer is really Professor of Secondary Education in the university at Lexing-

ton, he is in a real sense independent of the State Department. Just below the high-school board, in direct line, is the county board. Since the county superintendent is its chairman, he is next below the state superintendent. However, since both positions are elective, the question can very fairly be asked: Is the plan of organization a very definite one? Local administration is in a high-school principal.

Their Supervision

Outside of local supervision, the plan of coördination for these county high schools is worked out through a State Inspector of High Schools. The inspector officially is Professor of Secondary Education in the University of Kentucky. As a high-school supervisor, he is, in the language of the report, "through the generosity of the general education board." The office was established in 1911. The plan of supervision employed is most briefly described as inspection. (Kentucky School Report, 1917, p. 23, Introduction.)

Their Distribution

It was the very evident intent of the law which established county high schools in Kentucky to place one first-class high school within reach of every child in the state, in the sense, at least, of having one in his own county. The law states that "within two years after the passage of this Act there shall be established by the county board of education in each county one or more county high schools," the only exception being in the case of a county already possessing a first-class high school. The progress in the distribution of these county high schools since their establishment in 1910 has been, in the language of Mr. McHenry Rhoads, "phenomenal." (Kentucky School Report, p. 211.) There were 271 county high schools up to July, 1917. The majority of these are in reality contracts with existing city high schools, as provided by the law. There were at the time of the report less than fifty high schools which were under the entire control of the county boards and supported entirely by county funds. The following table shows the distribution of county high schools by counties:

TABLE III.

TABLE SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS IN KENTUCKY, CLASSIFIED BY YEAR LENGTHS OF THEIR PROGRAMS

FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS		THREE-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS		TWO-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS	
No. of High Schools Per County	No. of Counties Having This No.	No. of High Schools Per County	No. of Counties Having This No.	No. of High Schools Per County	No. of Counties Having This No.
5	1	3	1	4	3
4	8	2	2	3	2
3	9	1	15	1	23
2	28				
1	57				

(Compiled from data included on pp. 195-211, Kentucky School Report, 1917)

As shown by these tables, there are 177 four-year county high schools in Kentucky. (A four-year school, first-class; three-year school, second-class; and two-year school, third class, by Kentucky State Laws.) The number of three-year schools, twenty-two, is relatively small, while there are forty-one two-year schools. The type is, however, predominantly, the four-year school. This is accounted for in a large part by the plan of the county board contracting with the existing first-class high schools, whereby the existing school becomes a county high school. In the distribution of first-class high schools by counties, both the median number per county and the number of schools per county which occurs most often is *one*. As noted, there are twenty-eight counties with two first-class high schools each.

North Carolina County High Schools—Their Administration

The North Carolina law which establishes farm-life high schools states: "There shall be established in each county which complies with the provisions of this Act a school to be known as the 'county farm-life high school.'" (County Farm Life School Law, Public School Law of North Carolina, 1917.) But as the law is only mandatory, as far as those electing to comply with it are concerned, this group of county high schools is really on a local-option basis. Their control is in the hands of a special board appointed by the county board, one from each township. The county superintendent is ex-officio member of this board. At the head of the administrative organization of this group of schools is the State Board of Education, which must pass upon the organization of the school before it becomes eligible to receive any state funds.

In addition to this group of high schools, North Carolina law provides for at least two other groups of high schools, which are county high schools. In one group the county board is privileged, with the consent of the State

Board of Education, to establish and maintain not more than four public high schools receiving state aid and especially intended to promote teacher training. The county board appoints a committee of three who constitute a special committee to administer this school. The schools are strictly under state supervision, the teachers being required to hold certificates from the State Board of Examiners. The organization of administrative authority is in direct line. At the head is the State Superintendent as secretary of the state board. Below and at one side is the State Inspector of High Schools. This office is placed to one side of the direct organization, since officially the State High School Inspector is Professor of Secondary Education in the state university. Directly beneath the state board in authority is the county board of education, appointed. This board appoints the county superintendent, and also the special committee who administers these schools.

A second group of high schools provided for county rural high schools. Any township, with the approval of the county board, may vote a special high-school tax and establish a rural high school. A committee of three, as in the other group referred to, is appointed by the county board, and the administrative organization is parallel to that of the first group. This group, instead of being organized on township lines, may be organized on community lines without regard to township lines. Still another group is that of the town and city high schools already existing.

North Carolina County High Schools—Their Distribution

Up to November, 1917, there were throughout the state twenty-one farm-life schools. These are distributed among eighteen counties, as follows (Tenth Annual Report, State Inspector of High Schools, North Carolina, 1917) :

— TABLE IV.

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION BY COUNTIES OF NORTH CAROLINA FARM-LIFE HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>No. of Farm-Life County High Schools Per County</i>	<i>No. of Counties Having This No.</i>
2	3
1	15

The second group of high schools, designated as "rural schools" in the report, with ninety-five counties reporting high schools, shows 100 four-year high schools, 63 three-year high schools, and 16 two-year high schools.

TABLE V

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION BY COUNTIES OF RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS IN NORTH CAROLINA

FOUR-YEAR SCHOOLS		THREE-YEAR SCHOOLS		TWO-YEAR SCHOOLS	
No. Schools Per County	No. Counties Having	No. Schools Per County	No. Counties Having	No. Schools Per County	No. Counties Having
4	2	3	2	2	2
3	8	2	10	1	12
2	26	1	37		
1	42				

(Compiled from Table III, Tenth Annual Report, High School Inspector, North Carolina, 1917)

The median number which occurs most often of first-class high schools per county is seen to be 1. There are, however, twenty-six counties having two schools per county. (Median computed on number of counties showing schools.)

Mississippi County High Schools—Their Administration

The administration of the Mississippi county agricultural high schools is primarily in the hands of a special board of five supervisors, four of whom are appointed (School Laws of the State of Mississippi, 1917), while the fifth is the county superintendent ex officio. Over this board is, first, the county board of education, and over it the State Board of Education. This last-named board decides when the school has complied with the provisions of the law establishing these schools and is entitled to state aid. The State Superintendent, appointed by the Governor and ex-officio chairman of the State Board of Education, is at the head of the administrative organization. In addition to these high schools, there is a group of separate districts, 232 in number, which have the privilege of giving high-school instruction. These are under control of a board of five trustees, who are appointed by the mayor of the municipality. This board appoints its superintendent of schools and other administrative officers and, in general, administers the affairs of the separate districts. Over them is the state board, the system of state inspection, and the state superintendent. A third group of schools which have the privilege of giving high-school instruction is the school in the consolidated district. The administrative organization of these schools does not differ materially from that of the other groups. Each school has its board of trustees, with powers and duties closely similar to those of trustees of separate districts. The upper portions of the hierarchy of administration are the same, except that state supervision is under a special supervisor of rural and consolidated schools. Supervision of all three groups is of two kinds—local and state. There is no real intermediate type. Lo-

cal supervision is through the administrative officers of the school and the county superintendent; state supervision is through specially appointed officers and the Department of Secondary Education of the University of Mississippi. It can best be described as inspection.

Mississippi County High Schools—Their Distribution

There are in Mississippi 289 consolidated districts, all of which may add high schools, the same as in special school districts. Many of the number have already done so. (Bulletin No. 10, Part I, State Department of Public Education, Mississippi, "Consolidation of Schools and Transportation of Pupils," by J. T. Calhoun.) The range in the distribution of schools is shown in the accompanying table. While there are as many as eighteen schools in one county and sixteen in another, the median point is seen to be 3.5 schools, or the median number of schools simply 3.

TABLE VI
SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS IN MISSISSIPPI
BY COUNTIES

<i>No. Consolidated Schools Per County</i>	<i>Frequencies</i>
18	1
16	1
12	1
11	1
10	2
9	2
8	3
7	5
6	2
5	4
4	9
3	9
2	10
1	12

County agricultural high schools show the following distribution: There are forty-four agricultural county high schools and three additional in course of construction. (September, 1916, Bulletin No. 10, Part II, "County Agricultural High Schools," W. H. Walker, State Superintendent, Public Education, Mississippi.) As there are eighty-two counties in the state, and as the law provides that in the distribution of these schools there may be two schools per county (one for each race), there are yet almost half the counties having no county high schools. In at least one case an agricultural high school serves two counties, which is one of the features provided for in the law. This group of schools will be much more fully discussed in the next chapter.

Alabama County High Schools—Their Administration

The law which provides for the county high schools in Alabama (General Public School Laws of Alabama, 1915, Article 20) provides that these high schools shall be controlled by a state high-school commission and the county board of education. The commission consists of the Governor, Auditor, and State Superintendent of Education. The county board of education consists of four members, appointed by the chairman of the board of trustees, and the county superintendent ex officio. The county superintendent is the chief executive officer of the county board, and is the individual chiefly responsible for all the regulations relating to the board. Specifically the laws provide every action of the county board, subject to the approval of the high-school commission, which, in effect, centralizes the administration of these highschools in the State Department of Education. In the administration of these schools the state high-school commission provides the course of study and must approve the one used by any school.

Alabama County High Schools—Their Supervision

The state high-school commission, in providing for the supervision of the county high schools, outside the local supervision performed by the administrative officers of the schools and the county superintendent, has joined the agricultural high school board, which is responsible for the nine district agricultural high schools, in employing a high-school supervisor, who gives his whole attention to these two schools. This plan was in operation about one year, but was discontinued, and the schools have been without supervision since.

Alabama County High Schools—Their Distribution

The county high-school law provides that the high-school commission shall locate one county high school in each of the sixty-seven counties in the state. There are, however, certain provisions to be complied with in providing approved sites and equipment, which may be one cause of delaying the establishment of schools in some of the counties. (Mobile County, by special legislative provision, is not included in the county high-school program.) There are fifty-seven counties which have established county high schools.

Other County High Schools—Their Distribution

Besides these fifty-seven county high schools, there are nine district agricultural secondary schools and the separate district or city high schools of the state. (By legislative enactment any city of more than 2,000 population is under the city board of education; any city under that is controlled by the county board of education.)

Louisiana Parish High Schools—Their Administration

Louisiana provides (Public School Laws of Louisiana, 1916, p. 116) that any parish board shall have authority to establish schools as are necessary to provide "adequate school facilities" for the children of the parish. With the sanction of the Board of Education (a board of five members, appointed by the Governor, and the State Superintendent, ex officio, secretary of the board), central or high schools may be established where necessary. In administrative organization, this board, with its secretary the most active member, stands at the head. Its administrative plans are carried out by the parish school superintendents and the parish boards.

Louisiana Parish High Schools—Their Supervision

A special group of agricultural high schools is under an inspector of agricultural high schools. Departments of "Domestic Economy" are supervised by the Professor of Home Economics at the University of Louisiana. Other high schools are supervised by the State Inspector of High Schools. This work seems a combination of supervision and inspection.

Louisiana Parish High Schools—Their Distribution

In fifty-seven parishes reporting there are 181 high schools. Of these, 95 employ wagon drivers for the transportation of pupils. These schools are distributed as shown in the accompanying table:

TABLE VII

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF CONSOLIDATED HIGH SCHOOLS BY PARISHES

<i>No. Consolidated High Schools Per Parish</i>	<i>No. Parishes Having</i>
8	1
7	3
6	2
5	6
4	5
3	16
2	14
1	10

TABLE VIII

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF OTHER HIGH SCHOOLS BY PARISHES

<i>No. High Schools Per Parish</i>	<i>No. Parishes Having</i>
8	1
6	2
5	2
4	2
3	6
2	8
1	16

The median number of high schools per parish is *three*. The median number of consolidated schools (schools employing transportation as shown by Annual Report, Louisiana High Schools, p. 52, Table of High School Statistics) is *two*. The consolidated schools are included in the first table above.

Of the state-approved agricultural high schools, there are, in group one, thirteen schools, distributed in eleven counties, all but one of which have one only agricultural high school. Of the type-two schools, thirty-eight are distributed as shown. (Data furnished by C. A. Ives, High School Inspector, Louisiana State Department of Education.) Domestic-science schools, some of which are departments of schools not on the state-approved list of high schools, but most of which are located in approved high schools, are distributed as shown:

TABLE IX

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF AGRICULTURAL HIGH SCHOOLS PER PARISH

AGRICULTURAL HIGH SCHOOLS	
<i>Schools Per Parish</i>	<i>No. Parishes Having</i>
8	1
7	1
6	1
3	1
2	4
1	28

TABLE X.

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF DOMESTIC ECONOMY HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENTS BY PARISHES

DOMESTIC SCIENCE DEPARTMENT	
<i>Departments Per Parish</i>	<i>No. Parishes Having</i>
11	1
7	4
6	4
5	3
4	4
3	12
2	12
1	17

With only thirty-four parishes reporting agricultural high schools, the median number (undistributed) of domestic science departments per parish is seen to be *two* (median computed on number of parishes showing four-year

schools), with fifty-seven parishes reporting departments. (Data furnished by C. A. Ives, State High School Inspector.) There are altogether 185 state-approved four-year high schools in the state, distributed among the parishes as shown. The median (undistributed) number of approved high schools is *three*, as follows:

TABLE XI.

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF APPROVED HIGH SCHOOLS BY PARISHES

STATE-APPROVED HIGH SCHOOLS	
<i>No. Schools Per Parish</i>	<i>No. Parishes Having</i>
8	1
7	3
6	4
5	6
4	4
3	17
2	14
1	9

Florida County High Schools—Their Administration

County high schools in Florida are established by county boards of education, wherever the advancement and the number of pupils require them. (Digest of the School Laws of the State of Florida, p. 19.) To administer and to regulate these high schools are the following authorities: The county board of three, who are appointed, elect all teachers and the principal and administer the affairs of these schools locally. The county superintendent of education, who is an officer in the Department of Public Instruction, is next in order in the administrative organization. Above the county superintendent is the high-school commission of from six to ten persons, one-third of whom are heads of institutions of higher learning and one-third high-school principals, appointed by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, whose duty it is to prepare a course of study for the county high schools of the state. Above this commission is the State Superintendent of Instruction, who has "general charge and oversight of all matters pertaining to the public schools." The State Board of Education, of which the State Superintendent is secretary, can hardly be said to be above the superintendent, as it does not elect him and is an ex-officio body.

Their Supervision

A system of local supervision, partly under the direction of the county superintendent and partly under the University of Florida, is provided by the county board of education, who may appoint county agents. This supervision is of the special subjects—agriculture and home economics.

In addition to this is the supervision and inspection of the county superintendent and the system of state inspection provided by the University of Florida through its professorship of secondary education. While the inspection is carried on by the state university, state law (Laws of Florida, Chapter 5382) prescribes the classes of high schools and suggests the regulations governing this classification.

Their Distribution

The law establishing county high schools, already referred to, provides for their distribution wherever justified by the number of pupils of sufficient advancement. This makes the unit not directly one of area, but one of high-school population. In the working out of this distribution of the high schools some facts are shown in the accompanying tables. (Biennial Report, Superintendent Public Instruction, State of Florida, 1916.) In the fifty-two counties listed by the inspector's report (Report of Dr. John A. Thackston for 1915-1916), showing four-year high schools, the distribution is as follows:

TABLE XII
SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF FLORIDA HIGH SCHOOLS BY COUNTIES,
ALSO BY YEAR-LENGTH PROGRAMS

FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS		THREE-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS		TWO-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS	
No. Per County	No. Counties Having	No. Per County	No. Counties Having	No. Per County	No. Counties Having
5	1	3	2	4	2
4	1	2	1	3	1
3	4	1	8	2	1
2	7			1	10
1	29				

There are twelve counties among the fifty-two which report no four-year high schools. The median (median computed on the number of counties having four-year high schools) number four-year high schools per county is one. This is also the mode, there being twenty-nine counties having only one four-year high school. There is a total of sixty-five four-year high schools. There are sixteen three-year high schools in eleven counties. There are twenty-one two-year high schools in fourteen counties.

Tennessee County High Schools—Their Administration

The management and control of the county high schools in Tennessee is legally (Tennessee School Laws, June 30, 1917) vested in the county high school board of education. This board is composed of six members, elected by the County Court, and the county superintendent, ex officio. This board has the power to locate these schools, hire the

teachers, and, in general, exercise such duties as the district boards of directors exercised in respect to the district schools. It may establish schools outright or may contract with existing schools, as in the case of the Kentucky schools, to give the county high-school instruction. When a contract of this kind is made, however, it is specifically provided that the administrative authority of the county and state educational authorities shall be as complete as in the county high school proper. Above this board and the county superintendent is the State Department of Education, with the High School Inspector representing the State Superintendent and the State Board of Education. The State Superintendent is appointed by the Governor, and is ex-officio secretary to the board. The nine members of the state board are likewise appointed by the Governor. The schools are classified by stature as first, second, and third-grade high schools, the classification being based on the number of years required for graduation and the number of teachers employed. The course of study is prescribed by the State Board of Education.

Tennessee County High Schools—Their Supervision

State supervision of county high schools in Tennessee is from two sources. Both would perhaps be denominated as inspection. One is conducted by the state university through the professorship of secondary education; the other, through the State High School Inspector, who is an appointed member of the State Department of Education and who gives all his time to the work of inspection. Two bases of approval are in operation. One is on the regulations prescribed by the State Department of Education, and is state approval; the other is on the basis prescribed by the Southern Commission of Accredited Schools, which closely approximates the regulations prescribed by the North Central Association. The former approval is the basis of apportionment of state funds, the latter being more often the basis of college entrance.

Their Distribution

Whenever a County Court decides that the interest of the public demands it, it has full authority to establish and maintain one or as many county high schools as it deems necessary. The matter of distribution thus is left to local initiative.

The distribution of county high schools among the fifty-nine counties reporting those schools is illustrated by the

following tables, which show the number of schools by counties. The tables show first, second, and third-class schools separately, as in preceding tables.

TABLE XIII

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF TENNESSEE COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS BY COUNTIES AND CLASSIFIED BY YEAR LENGTHS OF PROGRAMS

FOUR-YEAR SCHOOLS		THREE-YEAR SCHOOLS		TWO-YEAR SCHOOLS	
No. Schools Per County	No. Counties Having	No. Schools Per County	No. Counties Having	No. Schools Per County	No. Counties Having
6	2	5	1	9	2
4	1	3	2	6	1
3	3	2	7	5	3
2	4	1	13	4	4
1	29			3	2
				2	2
				1	8

(Compiled from data included in Mr. Bourne's Report of County High Schools, included in Tennessee Biennial School Report, 1915-1916)

There were seventy-two first-class county high schools, distributed among the fifty-nine counties. There are, however, sixteen counties shown in the report having no county high schools of the first class. The median number of first-class schools among the counties having them is twenty-nine, which is also the mode. Among the number having them, the median number of second-class schools is one. The median number of third-class schools is three.

Georgia County High Schools—Their Organization

The legal provisions for the organization of Georgia county high schools must be sought, not as a chapter set out by specific legislation applying to them only, but by implications in articles whose primary subject is not high schools. To illustrate, each county shall comprise one school district, and shall be confided to the care and control of the county board of education. (Georgia School Laws, Acts 1887, p. 71.) This board consists of five members, and is selected by the grand jury of the county. It has in another chapter been noted that a constitutional amendment makes possible the voting of a county tax for secondary as well as for elementary school purposes. The general administration of the schools of the county is in the hands of this board, and the county superintendent, who is an elective officer, having supervision over all the schools of the county. Over him, in order, comes the State Inspector of High Schools, the State Superintendent, and the State Board of Education. The state board consists of four members, besides the State Superintendent and the Governor, who are appointed by the Governor.

Georgia County High Schools—Their Supervision

Local supervision, outside the officers of the school itself, is in the hands of the county superintendent, who is required by law (Georgia School Law, 1917) to visit every school in his district every sixty days and to familiarize himself with the work being done. There are in the State Department of Education three special supervisors, appointed by the State Superintendent, whose special duty it is to give special instruction in county normals, but whose additional duty it is to aid in the general supervision and inspection of the schools in such a way as the superintendent of schools may direct. In addition to these is the state system of inspection, of accrediting, and of classification of high schools carried on through the Professor of Secondary Education at the state university.

Their Distribution

The distribution of county high schools, as shown in the High School Inspector's last report (Table No. II, Report of Joseph S. Stewart, Professor of Secondary Education, Forty-Sixth Annual Report, Georgia, 1917), among the 124 counties reporting, is illustrated in the following tables:

TABLE XIV

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF GEORGIA HIGH SCHOOLS BY COUNTIES,
CLASSIFIED BY NUMBER OF GRADES

TWELVE GRADES		ELEVEN GRADES		TEN GRADES		NINE GRADES	
No. Schools	No. Per Counties	No. Schools	No. Per Counties	No. Schools	No. Per Counties	No. Schools	No. Per Counties
County	Having	County	Having	County	Having	County	Having
1	10	3	2	4	1	2	1
		2	15	3	2	1	18
		1	75	1	41		
				2	8		

In designating these high schools, they are designated as "twelve grades," "eleven grades," etc., as they were so designated by Mr. Stewart. The eleven-year schools can be considered four-year high schools when built upon seven years' elementary work. The typical number of the eleven-year schools is one per county in the counties having them. It will be observed that a large majority of the counties have at least one of these schools, while fifteen counties have two of them. The ten-grade school is pretty widely distributed, being found in nearly half the counties. There is a much smaller distribution of ninth-grade schools.

South Carolina County High Schools—Their Administration

The administrative organization of South Carolina consists of a state board and state superintendent, a system of inspection, a county board of education, a county superintendent, and a board of district trustees. As to real county high schools, the existing county high schools are county high schools only in the sense that they are under the county board's supervision, and the county board appoints the district trustees. An approach to what is more nearly county high schools, in the sense it has been discussed in the previous discussions, has been made in the consolidated rural graded schools.

According to the State Rural Inspector (facts furnished by Mr. Lueco Gunter, Rural School Supervisor), these consolidated high schools, because of state aid, are developing rapidly. A group of three or more of these consolidated schools are encouraged to establish central high schools, providing one high school shall do the work of the several graded schools. Any graded school employing five or more teachers is encouraged to organize as a high school. Recent legislation which permits the State Board of Education to give to these schools double the appropriation which other schools receive (Legislative Acts, 1919) is doing much to encourage this centralization.

Their Distribution

Treating as high schools all these graded schools which have students enrolled above grade seven, which is the number of grades constituting the elementary schools in the state, the tables given illustrate the distribution of these schools. It must be said that this is an arbitrary definition of high school, and is not the one recognized by the Department of Education in the administration of state aid. In using this definition, no heed is given to the number of pupils enrolled in the particular grades. A school having eleven grades organized as such, even though there is only one person in the eleventh grade, is classed as a four-year high school. (The State Department requires a minimum number of pupils before granting state aid.)

Out of forty-five counties reporting, the distribution is shown by:

TABLE XV.

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF SOUTH CAROLINA HIGH SCHOOLS, DISTRIBUTED BY COUNTIES AND CLASSIFIED AS TO YEAR LENGTH OF PROGRAMS

FOUR-YEAR SCHOOLS		THREE-YEAR SCHOOLS		TWO-YEAR SCHOOLS	
<i>No.</i> <i>Per County</i>	<i>No. Counties Having</i>	<i>No.</i> <i>Per County</i>	<i>No. Counties Having</i>	<i>No.</i> <i>Per County</i>	<i>No. Counties Having</i>
1	9	21	2	17	1
		15	2	12	1
		12	1	11	1
		10	2	10	2
		9	2	9	1
		8	1	8	2
		7	2	7	2
		6	4	6	3
		5	5	5	6
		4	7	4	6
		3	3	3	6
		2	6	2	2
		1	7	1	6

TABLE XVI

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>No. Rural High Schools Receiving State Aid Per County</i>	<i>No. Counties Having</i>
8	2
7	1
6	1
5	1
4	5
3	9
2	17
1	6

(Compiled from data in Table XVIII, Fifteenth Annual Report, State Superintendent, South Carolina)

The last table shows the conflict between the definition of "high school" as used above and that used by the state board. This table shows the distribution of state-aided high schools per county, without any attention to the classification of the school. Using, however, the definition already referred to, the three-year high school is seen to be the favorite one, and the median (undistributed) number per county of the counties having them is seen to be four. There are also a large number of the tenth-grade schools, the median number per county being four. The median number of high schools per county recognized by the State Department in the administration of state aid is two. The total number of such schools is 130. The number of existing state-aided high schools per county is illustrated in the following table:

TABLE XVII
SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF STATE-AIDED HIGH SCHOOLS IN
SOUTH CAROLINA

<i>No. High Schools Per County Receiving State Aid</i>	<i>No. Counties Having This No.</i>
8	2
7	1
6	1
5	2
4	5
3	8
2	17
1	6

In a total of 126 schools among forty-three counties the median number per county is two, the range being from 1 to 8.

Virginia County High Schools—Their Administration

County high schools in Virginia are in much the same administrative category as are those just described in South Carolina. They are county high schools only in the sense that they are under the general supervision of the county board of education. The organization of administrative authority in Virginia places the highest authority in the State Board of Education of six members, three of whom are ex officio (among whom is the State Superintendent of Public Instruction), and three others of whom are elected by the Senate from the faculties of higher education in the state-supported institutions. Under this board is the State Department of Education. Under this department, and owning as its source of appointment and power the State Board of Education, are the division superintendents over several counties. Next in order is the county board, consisting of the division superintendent and the district school trustees. Parallel with this board is another county board of three members, one of whom is the division superintendent, whose duty it is to appoint the district trustee, the lowest office in the administrative hierarchy. On these last-named officers falls the local administration of all district schools. (Virginia School Laws, 1915.)

Their Supervision

In the supervision of Virginia high schools there is, of course, that supervision supplied by local administrative officers and what supervision may come from division superintendents. In addition, the state is attempting a rather comprehensive scheme of state supervision, which is carried out by volunteer work from institutions of higher learning in the state. Realizing the futility of being able

to do more than inspect, the State Inspector of High Schools and the Professor of Secondary Education in the University of Virginia have supplemented their own work with the assistance of heads of education from the five state normal schools. (William and Mary College is included as one of the five normal schools.) (Annual Report, Public High Schools, Virginia, 1917-1918.)

Their Distribution

In discussing the distribution of Virginia high schools, all high schools which are not classified as city high schools are given as county high schools. While city high schools bear much the same relation to county boards, they are placed in a separate table. Distribution is seen in the following table:

TABLE XVIII

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF VIRGINIA HIGH SCHOOLS BY COUNTIES,
CLASSIFIED AS ACCREDITED AND UNACCREDITED

<i>No. Accredited High Schools Per County</i>	<i>No. Counties Having</i>	<i>No. Unaccredited High Schools, but Doing 12 Units or More Work, Per County</i>	<i>No. Counties Having</i>
8	1	7	1
7	1	6	1
6	2	5	2
5	2	4	5
4	5	3	11
3	9	2	24
2	15	1	33
1	28		

The median number of accredited high schools in the counties represented is seen to be two. Accompanying it is a median of two unapproved high schools in the same counties (undistributed median). Twenty counties have more than two accredited schools, while one county has seven and another has eight. There is a total of 169 accredited schools in the ninety-four counties listed. Six of these ninety-four have no high schools. In addition to the 160 accredited schools, there are 145 unapproved schools doing 12 or more units of work. There are further distributed among these counties 217 high schools doing less than 12 units work. There are twenty-three accredited city high schools, two unaccredited, and five doing less than 12 units work. (These five include the Richmond Junior High School.) Altogether, there is a total of 552 high schools in the state.

Maryland County High Schools—Their Administration

Maryland trusts all her educational matters which affect the state to a State Department of Education (Maryland Public School Laws, 1918), at the head of which is a State

Board of Education. This board consists of seven appointed members. Beneath this state board directly, in administrative authority, is a county board, appointed also by the Governor; and beneath it a district board, appointed by the county board. The state board appoints a state superintendent; the county board, a county superintendent. The organization of authority is very clearly cut, delegated from above downward in each case, with the duties clearly specified. The local board is responsible for minor matters, but the real local control and administration of county high schools is in the hands of a county board and its appointee, the superintendent.

Supervision of These Schools

Local supervision of county high schools is supplied through the local school officers of the individual schools and the county superintendent. For its part of the supervision of high schools the State Department is provided with a Supervisor of High Schools, who has supervision of all schools above the seventh grade. The supervision of these schools is a combination of supervision and inspection.

Distribution

The county board of education may, with the consent of the state superintendent, establish high schools whenever in their judgment it is necessary to do so. The distribution of the county high school as it works out by counties and by groups, first and second class, is shown by the following tables taken from data in the High School Inspector's report. (Fifty-First Annual Report, State Board of Education, Maryland.)

TABLE XIX
SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF MARYLAND COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS
APPROVED COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

FIRST GROUP		SECOND GROUP	
No. Per County	No. Counties Having	No. Per County	No. Counties Having
4	2	4	3
3	2	3	5
2	1	2	5
1	14	1	5

(High schools of the first group have not less than eighty pupils enrolled and seventy average attendance, have not less than four teachers, and do not less than four years of work)

In nineteen counties showing high schools of the first group the median and the mode of the counties shown are each *one*. The range of the approved high schools of the first group is from one to four per county, with more than two-thirds of the counties showing one school per county. The median number of schools per county of the second

group (in the counties shown) is *two*, with more than half of the counties having two or more such schools, while a third have three or more. There are thirty high schools of the first group and forty-two of the second, making a total of seventy-two approved high schools.

Texas High Schools—Their Administration

At the head of the administrative organization of Texas is a state board of four ex-officio members, the State Superintendent being ex-officio secretary. Just below it is the State Department of Education, including the State Supervisor of High Schools. Beneath the State Department is the county board of trustees, five in number, elected one from the county at large and one from each district. (Out of 250 Texas counties, 112 have an ex-officio county superintendent, meaning a County Judge, who is also county superintendent.) Below the county board is the district board of trustees, elected by the people of the district. The county board of trustees is the important board from the high-school standpoint, as it combines districts for the formation of high schools, and, in session with the district trustees, it settles "questions dealing with the location of high schools, the teaching of high-school subjects, and matters pertaining to their classification." (Public School Laws of the State of Texas, 1915.) The educational executive of the county is the county superintendent.

Texas High Schools—Their Supervision

High schools in Texas are under the supervision, locally, of the county board, the county superintendent, and the administrative officers of each individual school. State supervision is organized under the State Department of Education. Up until the last two or three years it was under the direction of the Professor of Secondary Education of the University of Texas. It consists of a system of inspection and classification rather than supervision in a broad sense. The different types in the classification are fixed by law. In carrying into effect this classification, there is a committee, composed of a representative from the Department of Education, one from the University of Texas, one from the Agricultural and Mechanical College, one from the College of Industrial Arts, one from the group of normal colleges, one from the group of senior colleges, one from the group of junior colleges, one district superintendent of schools, and one principal of a high school. (Bulletin 80, State Department of Education, Texas High Schools.) These, by majority vote, settle all questions of classification.

Their Distribution

The following table gives the distribution of Texas high schools by their classification, as fixed by the Classification Committee:

TABLE XX
SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF HIGH SCHOOLS BY CLASSES

<i>Class of High Schools</i>	<i>No. Schools in the State</i>
1	301
2	107
3	142

As seen by the table, the number of first-class high schools (a first-class high school in Texas, as defined by Texas law, is a four-year high school, above the seventh grade) is greater than the combined number of second and third-class high schools. This total number includes only the schools visited and classified.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION—ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

In the administrative organization of the county high schools in the South there is a wide range in the degree of centralization developed. At one extreme is Maryland, where the entire control of education is in the hands of a state board, who, in the administration of education, both secondary and elementary, delegate specific functions to appointed officers. The Code is definite on matters pertaining to local administration of schools in such things as qualifications and salaries of teachers, standardization of conditions in high schools, and uniformity throughout their organization. At the other extreme is Texas, where local administration of a nominal county system is in the hands of local boards of trustees, who are elected by the people of the district. Secondary-school matters are more nearly in the hands of the county board of trustees, who are also elected by the people of the county. County superintendents in less than two-thirds of the counties are elected; in the others they are County Judges, *ex officio*. At the entire head of the state system is an *ex-officio* state board, having but one member, an educator, who, too, is elected at the regular election. Even the plan for the supervision of city high schools emphasizes most strongly one principle—decentralization of authority. The administrative organizations for secondary education, of the other states studied, range between these two types.

The state systems in Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida seem to approach more nearly the Maryland

type; while there seems a less decided tendency in the same direction in the organizations of North Carolina, Kentucky, and Tennessee. Certain it seems that in all the states studied, coincident, at least, to strongly developed county organization, is a strong tendency toward centralization of administrative authority in secondary education.

SUPERVISION IN THE COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE SOUTH

A study of legal provisions and financial support provided for high-school supervision, on the part of any other than local authorities, checked by a study of the latest high-school reports, indicates these things: First, inadequate financial provision prevents adequate force for any supervision other than one which must result merely in inspection. This is shown in the report of the Maryland inspector, who feels that the intent of the law is that the supervision shall be other than inspection and classification, but who is forced by the situation he faces to confine himself to the latter policy. A second thing, which is seen and seems also strongly felt, as indicated by Superintendent Dowell, of Alabama, in his comment on high-school supervision, is the failure of the state to provide at all for the support of even inspection, and to throw the responsibility on a professorship in the state university, or perhaps to leave it to be supported in whole or in part by outside funds. A third thing is the seeming conflict of standards for classification, the result of which is the State Department setting up its own requirements for accrediting, while the state university is using the standards of the Southern Commission for Accrediting Secondary Schools. Such a situation is indicated in the superintendent's comments on the report of Dr. Thackston in the latest Florida Report. A fourth thing is the absence of any mention in the law or report of any use of objective standards in supervision of high-school work. Nowhere is mention made in the sources of this study of any use being made of standard tests in evaluating the results obtained in high-school teaching.

DISTRIBUTION OF COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTH BY STATES

In viewing the general distribution of high schools over the whole South, there are a number of things which seem to stand out. One of the very first things to impress one is the unequal distribution of these schools by counties. It would be, of course, absurd to suppose the same number of schools in each county would be necessary to quality of

educational opportunity in the different counties. In fact, where there is a law like the Alabama Code, which established one high school in each county, the first question, in the face of unequal population, unequal transportation, and other economic facilities, is: Doesn't the very identity of number make impossible the equality of educational opportunity? But while this latter observation may hold in the Alabama case, it is certainly in no sense true in the case of North Carolina, where twenty farm-life high schools are distributed among eighteen counties, leaving four times that many counties without a single farm-life high school. Nor does it explain nearly half the counties in Mississippi without an agricultural high school. Similarly it does not explain the ten counties in Alabama without county high schools.

But it is not only in the group of county high schools which emphasizes one particular phase of secondary education, as the farm-life schools of North Carolina or the agricultural high schools of Mississippi, that this inequality of distribution is found. In the county high schools of Virginia, where the schools are county high schools largely by virtue of being under county control at the present, and not by being developed under county control, inequality of distribution is so evident that the State Supervisor of High Schools, in his last report, complains of what he calls "overdevelopment." A sufficient number of data on economic conditions and on secondary-school population in the different counties of the state not being at hand to justify any comments on this phase of the distribution in this study, it is thought best to base the conclusion as to the inequality of opportunity on the fact already mentioned—that at least six counties in the state have no accredited schools doing 12 units of work or more. In Tennessee there are sixteen counties having no county high school which is classified by the State Department as first-class. Still another point which comes out in the distribution of these schools is the relatively large number of three-year and two-year high schools. As seen by the tables already given, the number of these seems sufficient to justify the recommendation several times observed in the state high-school reports that a new type of high school, offering a shorter program in years than a standard four-year school, be developed—in brief, a junior high school.

In brief, then, the facts discussed in this chapter seem to indicate these conclusions: *One*, administrative organization shows a wide range in the degree of centralization developed. *Two*, in supervision the same fact is observed.

Three, there is a seeming conflict in standards for accrediting. *Four*, there is an absence of the use of objective units in measuring results of high-school work, shown in supervision reports. *Fifth*, the distribution of county high schools shows inequality of opportunity, within a state or between several states, in secondary education. *Sixth*, the relatively large number of two-year high schools indicates the need of an additional type for an accredited high school.

CHAPTER FIVE

SOME COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

Reasons for Studying More Intensively Some County High Schools

So far the study of county high schools has shown that there are several types of county high schools. The term, "county high school," as it is used, has a very general meaning; but a closer study indicates that the acceptance of this very general meaning, as meaning uniformity of curricula, maintenance, physical equipment, and the other factors which go to make up a high school, seems not justified. The acceptance of the general term, "high school," as meaning that the high schools of New England, of the North Central Association, of the Southern Commission, and of California are somewhat uniform in these same characteristics would be as nearly so. As there are variations in high schools, so variations in county high schools are found. An attempted classification of these schools has been offered in previous chapters. The study of any one group on the basis of classification indicates that variation in the chief factors of high-school life exist within the group, even as it exists between the groups.

Within any one of the groups previously discussed, when a number of schools in its distribution were studied, different methods of administrative control, different ways of providing for maintenance, different distribution of students, different types of faculties, and different points of emphasis in the aims of the schools were found. Within any one of these groups was usually found some one form of administrative control which seems particularly well fitted to the particular conditions in which it was found, some type which seemed to be growing greater in numbers and on which legislative effort and efforts of state supervision were most directed. An interesting question arising in connection with this group of schools was: Does their growing importance indicate a "survival of the fit?" Were they receiving their recognition because they were peculiarly fit administratively to afford opportunity in secondary education to the county? Finally, it seemed that a more detailed study of several of the high schools mentioned might serve to emphasize some of the points already noticed and which will again in subsequent chapters be referred to. For these reasons the farm-life high school of

North Carolina, the agricultural high schools of Mississippi, the county high schools of Alabama, and the county high schools of Tennessee will be studied more in detail. There has been no attempt to pick out for this special study of the individual school a typical school in the statistical meaning of the term "typical." Instead, the aim has been to show what can be done by choosing one of the most highly developed schools of the group. In other chapters the stress has been laid rather heavily on the entire distribution and on statistically typical cases. Partly because of this fact it seems advisable to set forth rather in detail some of the best accomplishments in these distributions. There is no intention of leaving the impression that all of these things have been done where this group is found. What *has been done* is shown elsewhere. The intention is to show that these things *can be done* with this form of administration, because it has been done here.

Method of Studying These Schools

In studying these schools, the history of their development will be studied. The future of the school, as nearly as it can be predicted on authentic sources, will be indicated. Illustrations drawn from individual schools and pertinent facts relating to them will be emphasized in a study which aims to be individual rather than general.

The Development of the Farm-Life High School of North Carolina

The first bill for the farm-life high school to be ratified provided for the departments of manual training and domestic science in the public high schools of Guilford County. It provided \$2,500 of county support and an equal special state aid. It named the purpose of the school as being to give to the girls and boys of the county such education as the county high school provided, and at the same time to provide instruction in agriculture and farm life and to prepare the girls for home making and home keeping. It outlined the plans for the faculty and for the programs of study. Its last Act applied this law to any county which would comply with the provisions of the Act. (Public School Laws, 1911, ratified March 1, 1911; amendments to, ratified March 10, 1913.) Immediately after the ratification of this Act, another, known as "the county farm-life school" law, was ratified. (Public School Laws of 1911, ratified March 3, 1911.) This law provided for a school in every county which should comply with the provisions of

the Act. More specifically, this law puts the emphasis on "home making and housekeeping on the farm." It indicates a school, not a department. The board of its control differs from that of the other schools in that it is a special board. Its instruction is intended for adults as well as for those usually constituting the secondary-school population. It has an extension department, with short courses, for the adults referred to. But the chief feature is that, instead of being a department of a regular high school, it has as departments some of the regular curricula of public high schools.

Specific Farm-Life High Schools

There were on June 30, 1917, two farm-life high schools organized under the law described in the last paragraph. They were the farm-life high schools at Vanceboro, in Craven County, and the one at Clemmons, in Forsythe County. The school at Vanceboro was established in 1913; the one at Clemmons, in 1915. The other farm-life schools are organized under the law described as the "Guilford County law." As the original farm-life high school, the Vanceboro school is studied in detail.

Vanceboro Farm-Life High School

The farm-life school at Vanceboro was established for Craven County under the bill passed by the North Carolina Legislature in March, 1911. The law provided that the township which offered the best financial inducements should secure the location of the school; and its location was secured by Vanceboro, a village of some 500 population, raising by subscription ninety acres of land and by voting a bond issue of \$10,000 for building purposes. The school is located in the coastal plains section of the state, in a community devoted to agriculture, and in what is described by Mr. Joslyn, its principal (Catalog, Craven County Farm Life High School, 1917-1918), as a "good typical farming section." The law which established the school sets forth its purpose, the statement of that purpose being: "The training and preparation of the boys and girls for farm life and home making." There is an additional purpose expressed by the school, and that is to help the adult farming population of its community to fuller living.

The Administration of "Vanceboro" Physical Equipment

Besides the farm, consisting of ninety acres of land, already referred to, the Vanceboro school has as its physical equipment a dormitory which was built to accommodate

fifty boarding students. This is a brick building, and contains, besides the living rooms for students, kitchen, dining room, the laboratories for agriculture, for physics, for chemistry, and one classroom. It is modern in that it has electric lights, steam heat, and water. The administration building, which is the main building for classroom purposes, has, besides the laboratory, study hall, office, music room, etc., three classrooms. In addition to these buildings are: the principal's cottage (a five-room bungalow, maintained, as indicated by the name, as a home for the principal of the school), a farmers' cottage, a power plant, and the farm barn. The school has a small dairy herd and some pure-bred hogs. These serve both for use in demonstration work and as sources of supply for the dormitory.

Faculty of Vanceboro Farm-Life High School

In the high school proper there were for the school year 1917-1918, including the principal and matron, nine members. The principal was a graduate (degree, Bachelor of Agriculture) of the North Carolina Agricultural and Mechanical College, and the instructor in agriculture had a bachelor's degree from the same institution, and the two teachers of academic subjects had A.B. degrees. For the other five teachers degrees were not listed. (Catalog, Craven County Farm-Life High School, 1917-1918.) They were all listed as having attended special schools for their special subjects, but were not listed with degrees.

Program of Studies

The program of studies was four years in length and embraced two curricula, the first known as the "agriculture-household economics course" and the second as the "English course." These curricula contain in common: English, history, algebra, arithmetic, chemistry, and agriculture. The chief differences in them were that in the household economics course there was added to these such vocational subjects as farm carpentry, animal husbandry, horticulture, farm mechanics, farm management, farm engineering, cooking, sewing, sanitation, and home management. The English course to the common subjects mentioned above added Latin and geometry. According to the school's statement (Catalog, Craven County Farm-Life High School, 1918-1919), the purpose of the "English course was to satisfy college-entrance requirements. In detail, the English course was the regulation grammar, rhetoric, and composition over the first two years of work, supplemented

with classics from English and American literature the last two years. History was ancient, medieval, modern, English, and American in the order named; mathematics, common to both courses, being rural arithmetic the first year, with the second and third years devoted to algebra. In the English curriculum plane geometry occupied the fourth year. Biology, chemistry, physics, and Latin corresponded in outline closely to the conventional outline commonly found in these subjects. General science and civics were outlined as studies of general principles involved in those subjects. Domestic art provided four years of work, including two years of sewing, sanitation, and home management. Domestic science, which covered four years, consisted of two years of general cooking, one year of invalid cookery, and a fourth year devoted to the study of bacteriology. Agriculture, as a course, in the first year aimed to teach the boy the use of ordinary tools and the making of such home articles as porch swings and chairs, flower boxes and stands, and the cost of repairing and painting farm buildings. This year also aimed to teach him the crops best suited to his section and the facts in soil preparation, fertilization, cultivation, seed selection, harvesting, housing, and marketing necessary to their successful production. In the second year of this course the student studied the most popular breeds of live stock—their selection, care, and breeding. Especially he studied the breed most often found in the Carolinas and how to improve them. In connection with this year's work, a study of milk products and the processes of handling the separator, testing milk, and the making of dairy products was made. The third year sought to acquaint him with garden and market vegetables—how to grow and how to market them. It aimed to teach him how to select, to plant, to fertilize, to prune, to spray, to harvest, and to market berries and fruits. Special stress was given to growing a home orchard and garden. It also aimed to make him familiar with farm machinery and how to use and to care for it. In the last year he studied the selection of a farm and the business management of one after it has been selected. This was supplemented by a study of drainage, terracing farms, the laying out of fields, of canals, and similar problems of farm engineering.

In addition to these two standard four-year curricula, there was a one-year curriculum, designed for those who would not for various reasons be able to go to high school. This curriculum was "swung in" between the regular seven years of grade work and the high-school program. In its designing it was aimed to be such that when the pupil com-

pleted it he would have rather an accurate knowledge of formal grammar and the principles of arithmetic. In addition, the boys would have some of the general principles of the courses to be developed later in the high-school course in agriculture, as farm carpentry, farm animals, dairying, vegetable gardening, fruit culture, field crops, and soils. The girls would have, in place of this latter, a general survey of food principles and their relations to diet and digestion, cooking, menu making, serving, a study of simple stitches, textiles, fibers, and suitable fabrics for home clothing. An additional hope in the formation of this curriculum was stated that it would, besides giving the student a valuable body of principles, also fit well into high-school work and be the means of further encouragement for later work in that line.

Extra Curricula Activities

Outside the regular activities of the school which led toward its diplomas were certain other activities. In matters of religious education, the school, by its own statement, was "nonsectarian." All its faculty were members of Protestant churches. Devotional exercises were held daily in the chapel, and attendance was required of all students. Attendance at one of the two Sunday schools of Vanceboro was also required of all students.

From 4 to 6 o'clock every afternoon on school days and all the afternoon Saturdays were given to athletic games. Throughout the week the activities were between the student groups, but on Saturdays the younger folk of the community were encouraged to participate. Baseball, basket ball, and tennis were played by both boys and girls.

There were other student activities, including one literary society, and every student was required to be an active member of it. The programs included the regular activities of such societies, and the work was conducted by the usual methods and with the usual purposes. There was a chorus to which all students could belong, and individual lessons, instrumental and vocal, were provided for a special fee. Public programs, with "outside speakers," were featured several times yearly. There was no tuition charge for students from Craven County. Students from other counties paid two dollars per month. Board was furnished students at cost. Room rent for the year in the dormitory was twenty-five dollars. Board, even in the 1918-1919 season, was ten dollars per month, and where the student returned to his home for the week end it was eight dollars. Student labor was encouraged. for the year 1917-1918 five hundred dollars being expended for that purpose.

That the school was trying to do some practical work for the betterment of living conditions in its community was shown by the statistical study just published by Principal Joslyn, which interprets the data collected by the United States Census Bureau on butter production. The point of the study was the small amount of butter produced by the number of cows owned by the county and a statistical argument for fewer cows of better producing qualities. The study under the title, "The Importance of Dairy Industry to Craven County," is included in the current catalog of the school. (Catalog, Craven County Farm-Life High School, 1918-1919.)

Distribution of Students

There were thirty-five students in the first-year class—twelve boys and twenty-three girls; in the second-year class there were just a dozen students, seven of whom were boys; in the third-year class there were eleven, six of whom were girls; while the fourth-year, or the senior, class had only seven students, with three boys remaining. An indication of the decreasing size of classes is seen from the tabulated statement below:

TABLE XXI

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY YEARS IN CRAVEN
COUNTY (N. C.) HIGH SCHOOL

	<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year, or Senior</i>
No. students enrolled in class-----	35	12	11	7

Two things must be kept in mind when studying this table. *First*, such a distribution is never more than an indication of elimination. An accurate measure can only be obtained by taking the figures of the students in the fourth-year class at the different year stages indicated. A *second* thing to be remembered is that the extreme youth of the school renders its population far from stable.

The future of the farm-life high school at Vanceboro, in common with that of the other farm-life high schools, is, perhaps, most safely predicted, from the standpoint of this study, by a quotation from the Inspector of High Schools for North Carolina, Mr. N. W. Walker, who says: "After the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act, providing federal aid for vocational education, a new policy was adopted with reference to the farm-life schools. Instead of encouraging the establishment and development of the farm-life schools, it was decided to encourage, rather, vocational education under the Smith-Hughes Act. Of course the farm-life school law is still on our statute books, but it has been modified in such a way as to make the estab-

lishment of new farm-life high schools almost impossible. I do not look for the establishment of another farm-life high school in North Carolina in the next decade." (Quoted from a letter received from Mr. Walker, dated April 4, 1919, in answer to a request for recent information concerning this group of schools. That Mr. Walker's prediction with regard to the future of this group of schools is based upon what is actually happening in them is clearly shown in the report of the federal aid for vocational education in North Carolina (Bulletin No. II, December 1, 1918, p. 34), which shows eight of the farm-life schools as vocational schools and one of them as an "all-day home economics school." While it is believed that, with government aid and control, educational opportunities can be more nearly equalized in these schools, and the equipment can be brought to a higher state of development, and a maximum of usefulness secured from them, yet it must be admitted that they are then county high schools only in the unit of territory they serve, while support and control has changed to another unit. It is, then, as such they are left. As county high schools, they were developed to supply a special form of instruction to the county. As such schools, but aided and controlled in part, at least, by the national government, devoted to a more strictly vocational type of education, seems destined to be their future history.

Alabama County High Schools—The History of Their Development

The administrative organization, maintenance, and various facts concerning the Alabama county high schools have been discussed. Their origin was in a bill in the Legislature of 1908, which appropriated \$2,000 for each school established. Four years later the appropriation was increased to \$3,000, and by 1917 fifty-seven counties had taken advantage of the law and had established county high schools.

Jefferson County High School—Its History and Location

The county high school of Jefferson County was one of the last of the fifty-seven to be established, it being completed in 1917. It is one of the most comprehensive in its plans of any of these schools, and it started its first year with an enrollment second in the distribution of county high schools, being exceeded this first year only by the Cullman County High School, and by it only by five pupils, the latter having 206 enrolled. The Jefferson County High

School was established largely through the efforts of one of the citizens of Boyles, Mrs. H. E. Pearce, who, in her "plans for civic betterment, worked untiringly, undaunted by opposition, until she could bring this educational opportunity to her community." Speaking of the work of Mrs. Pearce for the Jefferson County community, Mr. Dimmitt, sometime High School Inspector for Alabama, said: "Through her persistent efforts sentiment was crystallized in favor of the school, with the result that local contributions and appropriations from the county were made, sufficient to build the first unit of the building, at a cost of \$40,000." (Report of State Inspector of High Schools, 1916-1917, page 11.) The plans for the school in the beginning called for two additional units in equipment when demanded by the enrollment. The school is located at Boyles, a town of 1,500 inhabitants, a suburb of Birmingham. It is connected with the latter by interurban railway. On the north and on the south, in close proximity to Boyles, are the towns of Tarrant City and Inglenook. The location of the school insured a large number of students, and opened a relatively large number of homes for the accommodation of high-school students from other parts of the county.

The Administration and Physical Equipment of Jefferson County High School

The Jefferson County High School has a ten-acre lot of land for its site, which is valued at \$3,000. The first building was built at a cost of \$40,000. This building was destroyed by fire, and was replaced by a building costing \$75,000. The new building possessed an auditorium with a seating capacity of 500 persons, a gymnasium, and with a lunch room with a capacity for 400. It has at least six rooms more than the old building had, and provides for manual training, home economics, art and expression, and music rooms, as well as laboratories for physics and chemistry. (Annual Report of County Superintendent of Schools, Jefferson County, Ala., 1917-1918.)

Faculty

The faculty in 1917 consisted of nine members, including the principal, of whom six had bachelor's degrees, one a normal-school diploma, one a college diploma in a special subject, and one had only attended normal school and college without completing work for a degree. In 1918 the faculty had increased to twelve members, with a slight increase in the relative number holding college degrees, but

with the same absolute number with less than a college degree as equipment for teaching.

Program of Studies

The program of studies for the county high schools of Alabama was prescribed by the High School Commission. The program of studies for the Jefferson County High School was in harmony with the general course published by the State Department of Education for Alabama. (Course of Study for County High Schools, July, 1918; Bulletin of State Department of Education for Alabama and Catalog and Course of Study for Jefferson County High School, Session of 1917-1918.) The program embraced three curricula—"Science Course," "Latin Course," and "Modern Language Course"—built on seven years of grade work. The constants in the three curricula were English and mathematics. These two subjects appeared in every year in every curriculum. At least three years of history appeared in every curriculum, although it was not universal as far as different years were concerned, as were English and mathematics. Science appeared in all curricula, but only one year of it was in the modern-language curriculum. There were four years of vocational work in each curriculum. The science differed from the Latin curriculum merely by the omission of Latin. It differs from the modern language by the omission of both Latin and the modern languages.

Courses in Detail—Different Subjects

ENGLISH.—The courses of study in English were identical in all three curricula. For the first year it was grammar, composition, classics, and spelling; in the second year it was composition, rhetoric, classics, and spelling; in the third year, composition, classics, history of American Literature, and spelling; and in the fourth year, history of English literature was substituted for American.

MATHEMATICS.—In the first semester in the three curricula arithmetic was taught in the first year. Algebra followed for one and one-half years, with plane geometry in the third year, and the final year of the course was given to solid geometry and to second-course algebra.

VOCATIONAL WORK.—The course in vocational training was the same in all three curricula, except that in the final year of the Latin curriculum it was optional. In the first year it consisted of manual training for boys and cooking for girls, with home and school gardening for both. In the

second year it was woodworking for boys, with second-year cooking for girls, and a second year of school gardening for both. Farm mechanics was taught boys as vocational agriculture in the third year, and sewing for the girls, with a third year of school gardening for both. The vocational course was completed by a fourth year of work, consisting of school gardening, which was either home or school gardening in the Latin course, and which was also optional in that course.

SCIENCE.—During the first year of the science course in the science curriculum, in the first semester the general principles of agriculture were taught; during the second semester, general science. The same was true in the modern-language curriculum and the Latin curriculum, except that general science was omitted. Horticulture and botany constituted the science in the science curriculum, which was all the science offered this year, it being omitted from the other two curricula. The modern language omitted science in the third year, and in the Latin curriculum physics was offered. In the science curriculum, besides physics, agriculture in one of the following phases was given: animal husbandry, dairying, poultry, and field crops. In the science and modern language of the fourth year chemistry was given, no science being given in the Latin curriculum.

HISTORY.—English history was taught the first year in all three curricula. General history was taught the second year. It was omitted in the third year from all three curricula, and American history and civics were taught in all three curricula for the fourth year.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES.—Latin was not included in the science curriculum. Two years of beginner's Latin was given in the Latin curriculum, followed by a year in Cæsar, and completed by a fourth year in Cicero. Two years of beginner's Latin was given by the modern-language course, followed by German or French in the third and fourth years.

Extra Curricula Activities

Among the student organizations providing the activities outside the regular course work of the school were four literary societies, an athletic association, a boys' glee club, a girls' glee club, a history forum, a better-speech council, and a Red Cross Society. These organizations were strictly student organizations, and were thriving, both in numbers and in work. An annual, "The Jeff Cohi," was published by the students, they even putting out one the year the building was destroyed by fire.

Distribution of Students

In the fourth, or senior, year of the Jefferson County High School there were sixteen girls and six boys. The third year had fifty students, divided almost equally, there being twenty-four girls and twenty-six boys. There were forty girls and forty-five boys in the second year, and 154 students in the beginning year, making a total of 310 students. This was 100 more than the number reported for the largest county high school in the State for the year previous. The distribution by years is shown in the following table:

TABLE XXII

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF JEFFERSON COUNTY (ALA.) HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS BY YEARS

	<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
No. students enrolled by classes	154	85	49	22

There is no basis for the indication of the elimination of pupils in this table, owing to the extreme youth of the school. Its holding power, as indicated by the State High School Inspector's report (Bulletin No. 58, State Department of Education for Alabama, p. 25), measured by the pupils retaining membership for the year, based on the total enrollment for the year, was almost exactly the average of the state.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS FOR ALABAMA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

As indicated by the program of studies just discussed, these county high schools seem to be well fitted to take on additional work in vocational education, without changing materially their administrative status. The rapid growth and development of the Jefferson County High School, even under conditions which might have, at least, delayed very materially such progress, indicates what can be done with such a high school. Surely the plan employed in such an organization as just described is a very long step toward offering the students of Jefferson County educational opportunities comparable to those enjoyed in the typical town high school of the state.

Hinds County (Miss.) Agricultural High School— History and Location

A study of the Hinds County Agricultural High School shows the history and development of one of the Missis-

issippi agricultural county high schools. As in the case of the two others discussed, it cannot be said to be typical of these schools, but is offered rather as an illustration of what is being done in one of them. It was established in the fall of 1916, and began operations in the fall of 1917. It will be remembered from a previous chapter that the second law for the establishment of these schools, the first having been declared unconstitutional, was passed in 1910. At the time of their completion the physical equipment for the Hinds County High School was one of the most extensive, if not the most extensive, which had been undertaken. The second session of this school opened on September 10, 1918. The school will be discussed on what it had that year.

The Hinds County School is located at Raymond, the county in which Jackson, the state capital, is located, and is a short distance west and an almost equal distance south of the center of the state. One county lies between it and the Mississippi River. It is a rich agricultural section, and Raymond is practically the geographic center of the county. The school was located here by the Hinds County Board in the fall of 1916.

Hinds County Agricultural High School—Physical Equipment

According to the survey of Hinds County, published by the State Supervisor of Rural Schools and the County Superintendent of Hinds County (Survey of the Schools of Hinds County, Miss., by J. T. Calhoun, Supervisor of Rural Schools, and F. M. Coleman, County Superintendent of Education, 1917), the equipment of the Hinds County Agricultural High School was the most extensive and the most ample that any county in the state had provided for any one of the forty-four agricultural high schools. The farm consisted of 160 acres, described as "splendid farming land." There was an administration building, built at a cost of more than \$20,000. There were two dormitories, representing a cost of more than \$35,000, a superintendent's home, power plants, barns, and other buildings. Altogether, excluding the farm, they represented an investment of between \$75,000 and \$100,000.

Faculty and Program of Studies, Hinds County Agricultural High School

The faculty, exclusive of the superintendent, matron, and engineer, meaning those only who are actively engaged in

teaching, numbered eight—five women and three men. The program of studies carried, in the language of the catalog (Announcement, Hinds County High School, 1918-1919), a standard high-school course, and provided by election from its course curricula which are both preparation for college and for a vocation. There was a special curriculum which provided training for rural teachers, and there were also special courses in military training and in music.

Special Courses

Military training was provided as a special course, and was required of every boy. The uniform was the regulation khaki, and the work done was the customary drill, and lectures were described as the kind usually required in that work in secondary schools. Courses of instruction in violin and cornet were provided, and by the payment of a special fee a course in expression could be obtained.

Regular First-Year Courses

In the first year's work two subjects were required of all students—first-year English and first-year algebra. Boys were required to study the principles of agriculture; the girls, cooking. To make up the fourth unit, either Latin or general science could be elected. Special work in spelling and writing was required of all.

Second-Year Courses

In the second year, English (emphasizing composition), history of the ancient world, and a second year of algebra ("Milne's Standard"), and three times a week spelling and writing, were required of every one. Girls did three periods per week of sewing and two of cooking. If a boy in this year elected vocational agriculture, he might omit all Latin. If he did not take the agriculture, then he must *elect* Latin, to make up his required number of subjects, as these two were the only subjects which were elective.

Third-Year Courses

In the third year every one took English, which again emphasized composition. All the girls took sewing three times per week and cooking twice. Plane geometry was required of both boys and girls, with vocational agriculture (animal husbandry) elective for boys. Three periods of writing and three of spelling were required of all. Modern history, stenography, and bookkeeping were elective. In this year the special curriculum for teacher training began,

the education course for the year being "Theory and Practice of Teaching."

Fourth-Year Course

In the fourth year every one took English, as in the other three years. Solid geometry and arithmetic, American history and government, writing and spelling were required of every one. Sewing three times a week and cooking twice was required of all girls. The elective subjects were vocational agriculture, stenography, bookkeeping, and school management. Boys who elected to take vocational agriculture might also elect to take one other subject. Girls could elect one subject from the list. The course in school management belonged to the special curriculum for training rural teachers. In both of the courses it was said that the theory of the educational subject was given three times per week, and a review of the elementary branches, emphasizing such ones as the "needs and attainments" of the class indicate, occupied the other two days.

Extra Curricula Activities

During the life of the school, which has been during war times, athletic life has been wholly between classes and groups within the school. There has been no attempt to promote "interscholastic athletics." Military training, although it can hardly be classed as extra curriculum, offered a special athletic field for boys. Regular physical training, which also could hardly be classed outside the regular courses, was required of all girls.

Special Administrative Features

One administrative feature of this high school that merits especial attention is its all-year-round program. The survey already referred to (Survey of the Schools of Hinds County, Miss.) speaks of a twelve-months' year, quartered in terms of twelve weeks. However, the summer-session announcement for the present year (Special Announcement, Hinds County Agricultural High School, 1919) indicates an eight-weeks' summer term, beginning May 29. Growing out of this feature, and the added emphasis on vocational education which is being given to the work of the agricultural high school, is the work of the extension department, which has as its aim the betterment of the living conditions in the county which the high school serves. This especial emphasis is made possible by the county agricultural high school being perhaps the best adapted of any of the three groups of schools which can be approved under

the state plan for administering vocational education. (Educational Bulletin No. 11, Vocational Series No. 1, Vocational Department, Public Education, Mississippi, p. 21.)

*Millington High School, Shelby County, Tenn.—
Location and History*

This county high school, which was chosen as one of the progressive and well-developed county high schools of Tennessee, is located in the town of Millington, in Shelby County, and is about twenty miles north of Memphis. It is on the Illinois Central Railroad, and has two gravel roads leading to Memphis. The town has a population of about 1,000.

The Superintendent of Shelby County, Miss Charl Ormand Williams, was a prime worker in the move to secure and locate the school. The school was really formed from the consolidation of districts, and it was the superintendent who saw the advantage of this location for a central high school. When the question of locating and building this high school began to be prominent, she was especially aided by the two members of the county board from this district. The county board had already been convinced of the advantages which would come from locating a central high school in this section of the county; so that when the movement centered in the effort to build the high school at Millington, little opposition was encountered. The fact that the building which housed the existing school was in most ways inadequate made easier the whole movement. The township board in the township where the school is located donated money toward the establishment of the school, and the village of Millington built the "teacherage" which was on the campus. The school opened for work in August, 1917.

Physical Equipment, Millington High School

The school plot had five acres of ground in its campus, the main building, which may be called the "administration building," being adequate for the use of the twelve school grades. It had, besides classrooms for these grades, laboratory rooms, an assembly room, and offices. It was built at a cost of \$61,000. The home of the principal was built at a cost of \$5,000. In the laboratories referred to there was, for the teaching of chemistry, physics, and biology, equipment valued at \$900. The equipment for domestic science cost \$750; for manual training, \$300; and for agri-

culture, \$475. The library equipment was valued at \$300. (Values obtained from data furnished through the courtesy of Miss Williams, County Superintendent, Shelby County, Tenn.)

Faculty of Millington High School

There were six teachers in the regular high-school department of this school. Elementary grades, eight in number, were operated in connection with the school, and the entire teaching force of the school was listed at fourteen. There were, however, only eight who could possibly be listed as high-school teachers, and two of these did mixed grade and high-school work. These two were teachers of special subjects—home economics and manual training—and did little more than just high-school work. Six of the eight teachers had Bachelor's degrees, four teachers having Bachelor of Arts degrees, one a Bachelor of Science degree, and the principal had both a Bachelor and Master of Arts degree. The principal of the school received last year \$1,800 per year. The teacher of agriculture received the same. Four of the high-school teachers received \$810 per year, and the remaining two only \$720.

Student Body, Millington High School

The student body in the high school proper, which means in the grades from nine to twelve, inclusive, was still small. One thing about it was noticeable, and that was, there were almost as many students in the twelfth grade as there were in the ninth. That this was not indicative of the holding power of the high school was evidenced, however, by the youth of the school. The following table illustrates the distribution of the students:

TABLE XXIII
SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY YEARS IN SHELBY
COUNTY (TENN.) HIGH SCHOOL

NUMBER OF STUDENTS BY YEARS			
<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
12	7	10	9

Program of Studies

The program of studies which was used by this high school was the state-required program for county high schools in Tennessee. (Bulletin, Tennessee Department of Education, "Course of Study for the County High Schools in Tennessee," date 1918, p. 9.) In Chapter Nine of this study this program of studies is discussed in detail. It is sufficient now to notice only the features bearing on this

particular high school. As will be seen in the subsequent chapter, this program of studies belonged to the type which had a number of required subjects (nine units of required work were indicated), and a wide range of other subjects from which to elect the remaining units. Two factors had operated to determine the character and the number of curricula resulting from this plan—one, the offering of a regular course in vocational agriculture, that the demands of the Smith-Hughes Act might be met; *two*, the small number of students to elect different combinations, which still further kept down the number of curricula.

Extra Curricula Activities

There were a number of student activities which did not come within the range of the curriculum proper. Among these were corn clubs, pig clubs, poultry clubs, garden clubs, and canning clubs among the students of agriculture, debating societies for students most interested in literary work, and tennis and basket-ball teams for those students with interests in athletics. For all the students there was in the high-school auditorium, with its seating capacity of one thousand, a moving-picture machine. Once each week, at least, censored picture shows were given to all students. A community room was located just back of the auditorium. This room was built with an outside entrance. All necessary cabinets and furniture had been supplied for this room. A kitchenette was installed at the time of the erection of the building. This room, which served as a meeting place for both men and women clubs, was said to have done much toward bringing the people of Millington in contact with the high school and to help make it a real community center.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

These different schools were described rather in detail, because it was believed that they illustrated what the facts of the other chapters have established—that outside the cities and towns of the South there is a rural high school development of great importance to that section, and one that is worthy of close study. What occasioned the question was Dr. Snyder's disposition of the rural high school in the South. Writing about ten years ago (Snyder, "Legal Status of Rural High Schools," Columbia Contribution No. 24, p. 114, date 1909), he said: "The Southern States present a different stage of development from that of the other states of the Union [referring to rural high schools]. . . . Most of these states have had more than they could well

manage in the attempt to establish and maintain elementary schools."

Chapter Four established, on the basis of the facts of distribution, that there is in the states of the South a rural high-school movement of significance, and one which merits extended study. This chapter illustrates what has been done in some of the most highly developed cases. It further seems to indicate that conditions have radically changed in the past ten years, which, no doubt, to a great extent, is true, or that Dr. Snyder assumed what he was, perhaps, not careful enough to justify objectively concerning the status of the rural high school in the South.

CHAPTER SIX

THE PHYSICAL EQUIPMENT OF COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

Importance of Physical Equipment of High Schools

As in maintenance, one of the most important phases of a law which establishes a county high school is that phase which provides for the physical equipment of the school. Scarcely second in importance, in fact, to that general clause for maintenance is the one which establishes the physical basis for the school. Educational practice in sections where inspection is the basis for approval has long recognized certain minimum prerequisites in physical equipment as a requirement for approval. No matter how strong a teaching force may be provided, no matter how carefully a program of studies may be fitted to a student group, a conditioning factor in securing a maximum output from the high-school forces has been held to be the equipment with which the forces work. To know more, then, of the favorableness or unfavorableness of the situations under which the county high schools in the South are working, one needs to know their physical equipment.

Method of Studying Physical Equipment

The first basis of physical equipment sought was the legal provision which was made for it. This equipment might come as a requirement to meet standards of accrediting, or it might come as a legal requirement in establishing a high school. From the standpoint of securing the right equipment, there seemed little doubt that a legal provision for it as a prerequisite to the establishment of the school would be the quickest and surest method. It might, however, have prevented some counties from immediately availing themselves of the state funds, if providing the legally required funds was too great a hardship. On the other hand, it seems, such a plan would certainly provide more nearly standard conditions in the very outset; and it has the sanction of some of the latest educational practice where a state system of high schools was being established.

Not all the things desired concerning the equipment of high schools could be secured in this way, for at least two reasons—*first*, in any county high school physical equipment had gradually been provided with the development of the school, and because of an implied rather than a specified legal provision; *second*, where a legal provision for phys-

ical equipment existed, it was for a minimum, which in many cases would be exceeded in the working out of the law.

For these reasons county high schools will be studied, first, to find out what the laws which created them provided in the way of beginning equipment. Then the actual distribution of that equipment will be studied where authentic facts concerning it can be determined. In studying equipment, the classification or grouping of county high schools defined and used in Chapters Two, Three, and Four will, for the sake of convenience, be used again. And, again, the salient features in a distribution, together with its summary, will be the basis for determining conditions regarding equipment.

Physical Equipment, Alabama County High Schools— Legal Provisions For

As a legal provision for the physical equipment in the county high schools of Alabama, it was provided that before the state would appropriate the regular annual state aid for maintenance the county must have provided a suitable site, with not less than five acres of land and with a building which would cost not less than \$5,000. (General Public School Laws of Alabama, 1915, Article 20, p. 71.) This was the basis for physical equipment in this group of schools. Further, it was legally with that equipment that they all would start. Later additional equipment would come through local initiative and through requirements for approval which the State High School Commission would have power to determine.

Facts Concerning Equipment as it Has Developed

In the working out of the providing of sites and buildings as provided in the law referred to above, the range of this equipment (Report of State High School Inspector of Schools, 1916-1917, Bulletin No. 58, as issued by the Department of Education), as shown by fifty-six of the fifty-seven schools reporting (Coosa County report is blank on this item), is from \$5,000 to \$50,000. The median equipment for buildings and sites is valued at \$12,950. The "safety zone" in equipment, as Mr. Bobbett defines the term (Professor Bobbett refers, in the San Antonio survey, to the middle fifty per cent of a distribution arranged in rank order as the "zone of safety"), is from \$16,000 to \$10,750. A study of the entire distribution shows only a few schools very much below the latter figure. Half of the thirteen schools placed below it really differ from it by less than

\$1,000; and it must be kept in mind that these are approximated values, and really must be personal judgments to a considerable extent. Only four are \$2,000 less than the quartile, and only one differs from it by a value greater than the probable error of the tabulation.

Equipment in Scientific Apparatus

In the valuation of the laboratory equipment of scientific apparatus which these schools have, there is a range of from zero valuation reported for two schools to a \$1,200 dollar valuation for one. The middle fifty per cent is between \$200 and \$500, the median evaluation of this apparatus being \$325. A third of the schools in the lowest quartile have less than \$100 worth of such apparatus (fifty-five of fifty-seven schools reporting).

Library Equipment

In library equipment these same fifty-five schools reporting show values ranging from zero to \$700, the median equipment being \$275, with less than \$155 equipment for the quarter which has the lowest value. Above \$350 is the one-fourth having the highest. One-half of those schools in the lowest quartile have library equipment valued at \$100.

Other Equipment

Rated as equipment, outside the buildings and sites, for such equipment as desks, blackboards, and school furnishings in general, these facts appear: The median equipment is \$825 in value, while the middle fifty per cent ranges from \$532 to \$1,200. One-half of the schools in the first quartile (lowest quarter in values) have an equipment in value of less than \$300, while half those in the fourth quartile have equipment valued at \$1,800 or more.

SUMMARY OF FACTS CONCERNING EQUIPMENT IN ALABAMA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

The facts which have been discussed in the last several paragraphs are summarized in the table given below. A brief study of it will serve to make clearer the significant points concerning equipment.

TABLE XXIV

SHOWING VALUATION OF EQUIPMENT VALUES IN ALABAMA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

Kind of Equipment	Maximum	Minimum	Median	*Q1	Q3
Building and sites-----	\$50,000	\$5,000	\$12,950	\$10,750	\$16,000
Equipment -----	2,500	0	825	532	1,200
Library -----	700	0	275	155	350
Scientific apparatus -----	1,200	0	325	200	500

*Q1 means the point halfway between the minimum and median values; Q3, the point halfway between the maximum and median values.

The one fact standing out in all these data is *variation*. Whether it is a range of from \$700 to \$0 in library equipment between schools or a comparison in central tendencies between different kinds of equipment, the fact of most significance is the wide difference in values. The significance of this variation will be discussed in another place.

Mississippi Agricultural High Schools—Legal Basis for Equipment

The law which provides for the physical equipment of Mississippi agricultural high schools is not so directly stated as is the Alabama provision. Municipalities of Mississippi are empowered to issue bonds for the purpose of aiding the procuring of the establishment of these schools; and as the state board must approve the plans and site for the building (Mississippi School Laws, Chapter 11, 1911), they can in this way define the amount which must be put into the initial plant for the county high school. Legally, while not so definitely stated as the plan employed by Alabama, it gives greater leeway in the requirements to be made of counties of widely varying economic status.

Building and Sites, Mississippi Agricultural High Schools

In the report of the State Supervisor of High Schools, from the schools which were reported, the range in buildings and sites varies from \$20,000 to \$60,000, the median being \$30,000. In furnishings for those buildings the range is from \$1,000 to \$5,000, the median value of furnishings being \$2,500. Briefly tabulated, these facts show:

TABLE XXV

SHOWING VARIATIONS IN EQUIPMENT VALUES, MISSISSIPPI COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

Kind of Equipment	Maximum Value	Minimum Value	Median Value
Buildings and sites-----	\$60,000	\$20,000	\$30,000
Furnishings -----	5,000	2,000	2,500

North Carolina Farm-Life High Schools—Legal Basis for Equipment

In the location of farm-life high schools in North Carolina, the amount of physical equipment which a community is willing to provide is a determining factor in the location of the school. Under the original law, communities, in effect, bid for these schools; and under the Guilford County farm-life high-school law, which by amendment in 1913 became state wide in its application, the high schools bid for the creation of the Farm Life Department. The original law provides for an initial equipment, "suitable" buildings and equipment for the carrying out of the courses of study, dormitory equipment for not less than twenty-five boys and for an equal number of girls, a barn and a dairy (both with necessary equipment), and a farm of not less than twenty-five acres of good arable land. The State Superintendent passes on the desirability of all equipment. Under the Guilford County law, the school seeking the location of the department must provide a building suitable for teaching the courses required, must have suitable laboratory equipment, and must furnish whatever dormitories the County Board of Education shall require. It must also furnish a farm of not less than ten acres of good arable land.

North Carolina Farm-Life High Schools—Buildings and Sites

In the establishment of these farm-life schools, only two, as has already been noted, were established under what is called in the North Carolina report, the "original law." (By the dates given in the same source the Guilford County law was ratified before the "original law" was made. The amendment which made the Guilford County law state wide was not ratified until some two years later, which probably accounts for the terminology.) The other nineteen were formed as departments of existing high schools under the Guilford County law. It was interesting to note the positions of these two schools in the distribution of physical equipment. In value of buildings and sites one was below the median, while the other was near the top of the third quartile group. In value of farm stock one was next to the lowest, and the other was considerably below the median. In size of farms both were above the median, one being within the highest quartile.

In the value of buildings and sites the range in this group of schools was from \$7,150 to \$57,130. The median value

was \$23,200, and the quartile values were, respectively, \$19,250 and \$39,900.

In the value of farm stock the range was from \$300, which two of the farms possessed, to \$25,585, which the school having the greatest value had. The median value of farm stock was \$900, with \$575 and \$1,225 as the first and third quartile values.

The largest farm was 172 acres; the smallest one, 15. The median number of acres possessed by a school was 35 acres. One-fourth of these schools had farms of less than 25 acres (the amount specified in the "original law"), and one-fourth had 80 acres or more. These facts are summarized in the following table:

TABLE XXVI
SHOWING VARIATIONS IN EQUIPMENT VALUES IN NORTH CAROLINA
FARM-LIFE HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Kind of Equipment</i>	<i>Maximum Value</i>	<i>Minimum Value</i>	<i>Median Value</i>	<i>Q₁</i>	<i>Q₃</i>
Buildings and site -----	\$57,130	\$7,150	\$23,200	\$19,250	\$39,900
Farm stock -----	25,585	300	900	575	1,225
Total value of plant -----	58,830	7,150	23,555	19,625	46,600
Size of farms (in acres) -----	172	15	35	21	67

SUMMARY, PHYSICAL EQUIPMENT, FARM-LIFE HIGH SCHOOLS

These facts indicate, as did the facts concerning the Alabama county high schools, a very wide variation between the schools in physical equipment. While it would be unwise to assume that there should be a uniform size for the school farms or a uniform valuation for equipment, it is, on the other hand, very difficult to justify a range like the one referred to in the farm-stock values. Just what \$300 in such apparatus could represent under present high values in live stock might be difficult to determine. To be sure, these farm-stock values are not truly objective ones; but grant that they are wholly subjective, which is, perhaps, just as far from being the case, and the variation in subjective values is wholly unexplained. Should a group of farm boys and girls in one county have \$300 worth of farm stock for demonstration and for other purposes, while those in another county have \$25,000 worth for the same purposes? Another fact which seems to stand out rather clearly is that the "original law," which provides in reality an agricultural school, with a regulation high school attached, was not showing superiority of equipment it provides for its students over the schools where farm-life activities were departments of regular high schools.

*Kentucky County High Schools—Legal Basis for
Equipment*

Kentucky law does not specify what physical equipment shall be the basis for the establishment of county high schools, the only legal basis for such equipment being found implied in the supervision of schools which the State Code places in the hands of the State Superintendent, and in the power of inspection which is also vested in him. (Common School Laws of Kentucky, 1918, Volume 2, No. 2, p. 19.) In so far as state and university approval set up certain minimum requirements for physical equipment, that far there may be said to be a semilegal basis for a required physical equipment.

*Kentucky County High Schools, "Pure and Simple"—
Physical Equipment*

In the small group of high schools which have been referred to in a previous chapter, the group which Inspector Rhoads has named as high schools under the entire management of the county board, distinguishing them from county high schools, which are such by virtue of a contract which they have with the county board to furnish education to the children of the county, but which were not developed by and were not exclusively controlled by the county boards, the facts will be discussed and then supplemented by facts from the remaining county high schools. (Biennial Report of the Supervisor of High Schools of Kentucky for 1917.)

*Kentucky County High Schools, "Pure and Simple"—
Buildings and Sites*

The facts concerning physical equipment in this group of schools, in value of the buildings and sites, showed that one-quarter of them had buildings valued at more than \$10,000, the maximum value being \$85,000. The middle fifty per cent had values ranging from \$10,000 to \$25,000. The median value was \$8,250. At least seven per cent of the group had buildings valued at less than \$1,000.

Library

The highest valued library equipment was \$600; the lowest value, \$10. The median value was \$75. Fifteen per cent had libraries valued at less than \$25. The quartile range (between the extremes of the middle fifty per cent) was from \$40 to \$200.

Laboratory

Laboratory equipment ranged from \$400 for one school to two others where the equipment was valued at \$5. The upper one-fourth had equipment ranging from \$200 to \$400 in value, but the lower fourth ranged from a little less than \$50 down to \$5. The value of the median equipment was \$80.

Equipment for Manual Training and Domestic Science

Equipment for manual training and for domestic science varied from \$400 to \$5. Half of the group had equipment valued at less than \$25, the median value of such equipment. The lower quartile had a value of less than \$10; the upper quartile ranged from \$150 to \$400.

TABLE XXVII.

SHOWING VARIATION IN EQUIPMENT VALUES IN CERTAIN KENTUCKY COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

Kind of Equipment	Maximum Value	Minimum Value	Median Value	<i>Q</i> ₁	<i>Q</i> ₃
Buildings and sites -----	\$85,100	\$500	\$8,250	\$2,500	\$11,500
Library -----	600	10	75	40	200
Laboratory -----	400	5	80	43	186
Domestic science and manual training -----	400	5	25	9	150

The above table illustrates the facts already described. General conclusions are reserved until the facts concerning other county high schools in Kentucky are presented. These other facts follow:

Physical Equipment—Buildings and Sites

In evaluation of buildings and grounds one county high school in Kentucky was valued at \$400.10, while another had as its home one which was worth a little more than \$500,000. The median county high school and site was valued at \$11,250. One-fourth of these schools had sites which were valued at less than \$6,500, while one-fourth of them were in places valued at more than \$20,000. (Kentucky Bien-nial Report, 1917, 127 of 177 schools reporting.)

Value of Library Equipment

In library equipment there was one high school listed whose equipment was valued at \$10. There was another in the same class of high schools whose library was valued at more than \$50,000. The median value of library equipment was \$190. One-fourth of the group had libraries valued at less than \$75, while another fourth ranged from \$425 to the maximum of more than \$50,000. (Ibid., 75 of 177 schools reporting.)

Value of Laboratory Equipment

In one county high school of this group of four-year high schools there was one whose laboratory equipment was valued at \$6 and another with \$8,900 worth. One-fourth of the group had less than \$75 worth of apparatus and another fourth more than \$250 worth. The value of the laboratory in the median first-class county high school was \$160 (75 schools of Class One, 177 high schools reporting). (Biennial Report, Kentucky High Schools, 1917.)

Equipment for Domestic Science and Manual Training

There was one county high school which had an equipment for domestic science and manual training valued at *one dollar and a half*. This was not wholly an isolated case, for in the 109 schools reporting such equipment there was another school with an equipment valued at \$2, five with equipment worth \$5, one \$6, five more at \$10, and so on, ranging upward to an equipment in manual training valued at more than \$50,000. One-fourth of these schools reported an equipment valued at less than \$25; another fourth had an equipment valued at more than \$300; while the upper five per cent had equipment valued at more than \$2,500.

SUMMARY

All these facts in summary can easily be seen in the following table. There are several facts which stand out in this table. One—*variation*—has been emphasized in the discussions of the high schools in the states already studied. It is found here in extreme form between schools, in any line of equipment, or between different kinds of equipment. A second fact that cannot but raise a question to the student of secondary school conditions is: How can a high school with an equipment valued at \$50,000 and one with an equipment valued at \$1.50 be in the same class?

TABLE XXVIII

TABLE SHOWING VARIATIONS IN KENTUCKY COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Kind of Equipment</i>	<i>Maximum Value</i>	<i>Minimum Value</i>	<i>Median Value</i>	<i>Q₁</i>	<i>Q₃</i>
Buildings and sites -----	\$500,417	\$400	\$11,250	\$6,500	\$20,889
Library equipment -----	53,848	10	190	73	425
Laboratory equipment -----	8,900	6	160	75	250
Domestic science and manual training -----	54,951	1.50	60	25	300

Another fact gathered from a study of this distribution of equipment values is, there were two high schools in the same city—one for boys and one for girls. The boys' school had an equipment for manual training valued at more

than \$50,000, and for domestic science in the girls' school there was an equipment valued at \$114.

Florida County High Schools—Legal Basis for Equipment

The laws of Florida providing for the establishment of county high schools empowered the county board of education to select sites of not less than one-half acre of ground in the rural districts, and, as nearly as practicable, that amount in urban communities. It was provided that the locations were to be "dry, airy, healthful, and pleasant," and "convenient of access." This same board was instructed to do whatever was necessary in providing buildings, furnishings, and other equipment, these provisions applying to high schools as well as to elementary schools. (Digest of the School Laws of Florida, 1915, p. 19.) Under special Acts for the establishment of departments of agriculture in the high schools (Ibid., p. 148), the board was empowered to acquire land, stock, etc.; but again the matter was left to be worked out specifically by the county board. The supervision by the State Department of Education provided for (Ibid., p. 12) another legal basis for demanding proper physical equipment. Coöperation with the "Smith-Hughes" provided a third check.

Florida County High Schools—Buildings and Sites

Forty-five county high schools reported as to buildings and sites, showing a range in value in such equipment from \$2,720 to \$125,000. The first twenty-five per cent of the schools had homes valued at less than \$16,000, while those of the highest fourth were valued at from \$55,000 to \$125,000. The building and site of the median school was valued at \$36,000.

Library Equipment

The smallest library equipment in this group of county high schools, thirty-nine of which report libraries, was valued at \$85. The median value was \$360, with one-fourth of the group having libraries valued at less than \$258 and the highest fourth having values ranging from \$650 to the maximum value of \$2,000.

Laboratory Equipment

The smallest investment by any county in laboratory supplies was \$110 (fifty-three schools reporting). Another county had \$7,500 invested. Twenty-five per cent of the

schools had equipment valued at \$7,150 or more, but another twenty-five per cent had an equipment for their laboratories which was valued at less than \$390 each. The median laboratory equipment for the group was valued at \$1,000. (Biennial Report, Florida State Superintendent, 1916; Dr. Thackston's report.)

SUMMARY—PHYSICAL EQUIPMENT

These facts as summarized appear in the following table. While variation is strongly evidenced in library and laboratory equipment, it is not so wide in its range as in the case just discussed.

TABLE XXIX
SHOWING VARIATION IN EQUIPMENT VALUES FOR FLORIDA COUNTY
HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Kind of Equipment</i>	<i>Maximum Value</i>	<i>Minimum Value</i>	<i>Median Value</i>	<i>Q1</i>	<i>Q3</i>
Buildings and sites -----	\$125,000	\$2,750	\$36,000	\$17,000	\$54,250
Library equipment -----	2,000	85	360	258	650
Laboratory -----	7,500	110	1,000	390	1,750

Louisiana Parish High Schools—Legal Basis for Physical Equipment

Louisiana state law provided for the building and furnishing of high schools, to be paid from the general state fund. The provision was made to specifically include high schools, but no minimum amount was named as an initial equipment. This was left to be determined by the needs of the situation, the wealth of the parish, and other factors. (Public School Laws of Louisiana, 1916, p. 116.) If any community wished better facilities than those which the general fund would provide, they were privileged to secure them through voting special taxes or by obtaining funds from "any other sources." Through inspection and the general supervision which the State Department exercised over the high schools of the state, it was able, no doubt, to insist on certain general standards in physical equipment as one of the bases for accrediting and classification.

Buildings and Sites—Louisiana Parish High Schools

One hundred and fifty-seven parish high schools, which were classified as approved high schools (Annual Report, Louisiana High Schools, 1916-1917), showed in the distribution of the value of the buildings and sites a range of

from \$2,400 to \$56,000. The first fourth had values of less than \$7,875. The middle half had values between this and \$30,075. The median value for buildings and sites was \$19,000.

Furnishings and Equipment

One hundred and fifty-eight schools from the same group (there were 161 schools reported in the above group), reporting on the values of furnishings and equipment, such as the term is usually used to include—desks, boards, and more or less fixed equipment—show a maximum value of \$25,000, with the highest twenty-five per cent ranging from that down to \$1,800. The middle fifty per cent ranged from \$1,800 to \$755, while the lowest twenty-five per cent ran down to \$200. The value of the median equipment in furnishings was \$990.

Library Equipment

One hundred and fifty-eight schools also reported values of library equipment. The library representing the smallest investment in the group was valued at \$25; the one representing the highest investment was valued at \$4,000. One-fourth of the fifty-eight schools had libraries valued at less than \$130. The middle fifty per cent had libraries ranging in value from \$130 to \$350; the upper fourth, from that sum upward to \$4,000; with the highest five per cent having libraries valued at \$1,000 and up. The value of the median library was \$227.

SUMMARY

These facts concerning the physical equipment of the Louisiana parish high schools are illustrated in the following table of summarized data. These data, as have those in the other states studied, show rather wide variation in values, both in any one kind of equipment studied and between the different kinds of equipment. In the matter of buildings and sites variation, they were not nearly so extreme as in the Kentucky county high schools. In library equipment the variation was sufficiently extreme to leave room for the inference that either the minimum requirement in library equipment used as a basis for accrediting was low or that it permitted a wide range in application. The inference was strengthened by the statement found in the high school report (Annual Report, Louisiana High Schools, 1916-1917, p. 13) that seven of those approved schools are on the accredited list of the Southern Association of Secondary Schools. It is only fair to state, however, that the same discussion says that a number of the larger schools are now ready to go on the list.

TABLE XXX
SHOWING VARIATIONS IN EQUIPMENT VALUES IN LOUISIANA PARISH
HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Kind of Equipment</i>	<i>Maximum Value</i>	<i>Minimum Value</i>	<i>Median Value</i>	<i>Q₁</i>	<i>Q₃</i>
Buildings and sites -----	\$156,000	\$2,400	\$19,000	\$7,875	\$30,075
Furnishings -----	25,000	200	990	755	1,800
Library equipment -----	4,000	25	227	130	350

*Tennessee County High Schools—Legal Provision for
Physical Equipment*

Tennessee law, in delegating to the County Court of the various counties the power to establish and maintain county high schools (Tennessee School Laws, 1917, p. 28), did not provide specific minimum amounts for equipment. A specific state fund for maintenance was provided; but nowhere, as in the case in Alabama, was it provided that the county should provide a prescribed equipment of specified value to receive that maintenance aid. In enumerating the duties of the High School Inspector (Ibid., p. 21), no reference was made to any supervisory powers over buildings, sites, etc. Only in the general supervisory powers of the State Superintendent and the State Board of Education was there implied any legal basis for determining such matters. It would seem that the amount of initial equipment to be provided for county high schools was left to the general powers of the county board. (Ibid., p. 34.)

Buildings and Sites

Ninety-four counties in Tennessee reporting in the latest high-school report (Biennial Report, State Superintendent of Tennessee, 1917-1918) showed values in buildings and sites ranging from \$10,000 for one county to \$770,434 for another. A fourth of the counties had property valued at more than \$94,000 for each school, while the highest five per cent were valued at more than \$250,000 each. The middle fifty per cent ranged from \$94,000 to \$31,400. The median value for such property was \$56,250.

*Tennessee County High Schools—Furnishings, Desks,
Maps, Etc.*

The equipment for the furnishings for each of these county high schools ranged for the highest fourth from \$80,000 to \$10,500; the middle fifty per cent, from this amount to \$3,800. The median value in the ninety-four counties was \$6,895.

Libraries

In library equipment the highest value was \$7,075; the lowest, \$48. There were only two counties with library equipment valued at more than \$5,000; one-fourth, however, had libraries valued at \$2,000 and above. The median library equipment was valued at \$990, and one-fourth had libraries valued at from \$530 to a minimum of \$48.

SUMMARY

These facts, briefly summarized, appear in the following table:

TABLE XXXI

SHOWING VARIATIONS IN VALUES OF TENNESSEE COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Q₁</i>	<i>Q₃</i>
Buildings and sites -----	\$770,434	\$10,600	\$56,250	\$31,400	\$94,045
Furnishings -----	80,000	800	6,895	3,800	10,500
Library -----	7,075	48	990	500	2,000

Variation is again apparent in the foregoing table. Especially regarding library equipment is the range great. The same questions occur which occur in the studies of other states. It is difficult to understand how an approved four-year high school can have only \$48 worth of equipment for library purposes.

Physical Equipment in the Remaining Group

In the states of South Carolina, Georgia, Virginia, Maryland, and Texas it was thought undesirable in this study to go into a detailed study of the physical equipment of county high schools, such as has been made in the first two groups of schools. In this last group of states county high schools have not been developed as a separate administrative organization, as in Alabama, Mississippi, North Carolina, nor have they developed where the county was the unit of administration during their development. On the contrary, in at least one state the county control, while embracing the high schools of the county, has developed as a centralization of administrative control since the development of the high school. In at least two other of the states in the group the control by the county is very nominal. In not one of the five was the county high school developed as either a special administrative type for reaching a particular group or for emphasizing some particular curriculum. Data for physical equipment would necessarily involve many values not high-school ones and many others hardly to be called

“county.” It is, then, to avoid what might seem an “uncalled-for” interpretation of these high-school conditions that these states are omitted.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

There are several conclusions which the facts just studied seem to indicate. First among these in prominence is indicated by the facts regarding variations. The facts studied show the physical equipment under two sets of conditions—*one*, where the state has required a minimum physical equipment as the basis for the establishment of the county high school, as in Alabama; and, *two*, where such a requirement was not made. There are abundant illustrations in the facts shown that variation is far greater, and minimum conditions are more apt to be bad where such a requirement is not made. There is no thought that equal physical equipment is necessary to provide that equality of educational opportunity which is accepted as the great underlying motive in forming county high schools. It is accepted without question in this study that such other factors as school population, economic and social conditions must be considered. On the other hand, it is hard to think of an approved county high school housed in an equipment where buildings and grounds are valued at \$400. The inference can but be that the school is not housed. This condition could not exist in a school where, as in Alabama, a minimum physical equipment is required. One conclusion is that very extreme variation, especially where minimum equipment will be found, is controlled in a large part where a minimum physical equipment is prescribed.

Again, in library equipment, where twenty-five per cent of the county high schools have library equipments to the value of \$70 worth, it is hard to believe that the students of these schools are enjoying many library privileges; and when the equipment runs down to less than what the required texts in their courses ordinarily cost, the factors of school population, etc., mentioned above, disappear, and prima-facie evidence of lack of opportunity seems presented. From \$10 to \$25, even \$50, can furnish very few needed references, while less than \$100 valuation could not include a single standard encyclopedia. Yet in at least one state studied twenty-five per cent of the county high schools in the approved group have libraries valued at less than that sum. To talk of equipment in manual training or domestic science in terms of less than \$25 value seems certainly to talk of things which do not exist. Is it fair to class as equipment in domestic science materials whose value is less

than the amount required to furnish so necessary an article as the "range" in such an equipment? Another question which will come and which "will not down" is: Are these things so much the result of economic necessity as they are the result of the lack of certain required equipment? The facts continue to show that where the classification of high schools by classes is fixed by law and where there are no prescriptions beyond the number of years taught to be recognized as an approved school entitled to share state aid, these undesirable conditions relating to lack of equipment referred to exist. The undesirability of a second set of standards for accrediting, which demand less rigorously necessary equipment than that required by the Southern Commission, is repeatedly shown in the failure to overcome the paucity of library and laboratory equipment so often encountered. When a state by legislation clearly defines the standards of approval for receiving state aid, plainly ignoring this paucity, the question very naturally arises as to whether a desire to profit individually from the state treasury or a carefully formulated policy aimed to equalize conditions throughout the state by bringing out a maximum of local support and effort, supplemented by state aid, is actuating the counties in their secondary-school policies. In brief, the facts show that a set of standards for state approval which requires less than is required by the Southern Commission is accompanied with undesirable features in necessary high-school equipment.

There is one other conclusion which the facts studied in this chapter seem to warrant: Too little emphasis is placed by too many county high schools on library and laboratory equipments compared to other phases of equipment. No matter how carefully other factors may be looked after, a maximum of return cannot reasonably be expected under this handicap. It must mean the teaching of science by abandoned methods—namely, just textbook study; and it must mean teaching English and history without parallel readings from other sources than the text.

Briefly, then, there is too little emphasis, too often, on necessary equipment. It simply is not fair to the students of these schools to work under such plainly unequal conditions. It is far more undemocratic than it would be to meet standards imposed from without. Is it not the resultant of the old frontier concept of democracy, which was *individualism*? It surely does not take into account the broader concept of developing to the maximum capacity the individual for the betterment of the *group*.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE STUDENT POPULATION IN COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

Importance of Studying the Distribution of Students

Inglis considers a study of student population one of the most effective ways of approach to the greater problem of comparing what different high schools are offering in the way of opportunities in secondary education to the school population they serve. (Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 121.) Going further into this position, Mr. Inglis points out that the chief conditioning factor in determining the number of teachers per high school is the number of students which attend the same school. One of the difficulties in the way of a program of studies including a large range of desirable courses is lack of teaching force. This difficulty, if the position of Mr. Inglis is correctly taken, would fall back on the doubtless more fundamental facts of student population. There are other facts which will be apparent from the study of how pupils are distributed among the different years of high-school work. The holding power of the school is pretty definitely shown by the relative number in the different years. Of course the reasons for elimination are not brought out by this distribution, but the extent of the elimination is approximated. Briefly, a study of the facts of the distribution of pupils showing the range of variation is a basis for the distribution of teachers, and a study of the distribution by years is indicative of the extent of elimination, or, stated positively, the holding power of the school.

Method of Studying Distribution

In the discussion of this distribution, the method already used, of presenting only the summaries and a discussion of the data, is followed. As in the other cases, the individual data, when ranked and tabulated, formed long tables, which were summarized by taking from them the things desired for the discussion—namely, the range showing the variation from maximum to minimum, the central tendency expressed by the median, and the quartile range. Throughout the discussion Professor Bobbett's definition of the "safety zone," or normal range, is accepted as the ones grouping between the first and the third quartiles. As a result, chief attention centers around the frequencies which occasion the greatest variation.

In studying the different county high-school systems the same grouping is observed which has been used in the other chapters. The emphasis is even more strongly placed on those systems which have been developed under county control for the purpose of reaching those students who are not reached by existing administrative units, or for the other purpose of emphasizing some particular course or curriculum. In fact, there is no desire in this study to investigate the distribution of student population in any system where county administration is either nominal or where the system of secondary education has been developed and county administration added after the distribution of student population has become established under another system of administration.

*Distribution of Students by Schools in the Mississippi
Agricultural High Schools*

There were in 1917 in the county agricultural high schools of Mississippi 5,346 pupils. (Mississippi Biennial Report, 1916-1917.) A study of the distribution of pupils among the schools showed this distribution was not fully represented by the average alone. There was a range in the variation of the number of pupils per school from 163 to 44. Twenty-five per cent of the schools reporting showed more than 121 pupils, which was the number forming the upper limit of the third quartile. Fifty per cent had between 76 and 121 pupils, and only twenty-five per cent had less than 75 students, with only one school with less than 50 students. When it is considered that a number of the schools were building and that those of another portion of them were very young, the variation seems to be not very wide. This is especially true of the middle fifty per cent, which groups rather compactly around the central tendency. The facts regarding the distribution of students seem to indicate that the schools are meeting with ready and rather equal favor—a fact that is corroborated by the High School Inspector's report. (Part II, Bulletin No. 10, 1917, County Agricultural High Schools, Mississippi Department of Education.)

Distribution of Pupils by Years in These Schools

A study of the distribution of these pupils by years shows the typical first-year class, as shown by the median of the group, to be one of thirty pupils. The typical second-year class was thirty-three pupils, the typical third-year class was twenty-two, and the typical fourth-year class was sev-

enteen pupils. The range of variation in the first-year group was from seven to fifty-one pupils. In the second-year group the smallest class was twelve, while the largest was eighty. In the third-year group there was only half so many, just six in the smallest and thirty-nine in the largest. In the final year, the fourth, the maximum class had thirty-two pupils, while the minimum had only seven. Fifty per cent of the schools had first-year classes whose numbers were between eighteen and forty-three. The same middle half in the second-year classes was between twenty-five and thirty-nine in number. In the third-year class a fourth had less than a dozen members, while another fourth had more than twenty-seven, leaving the middle group between these two numbers. Again, in the fourth-year classes only a fourth had numbers less than a dozen, with another fourth having numbers greater than twenty, the middle half then being between twelve and twenty-two.

SUMMARY

These facts summarized can be tabulated as shown in the following table. Columns 1 and 2 indicate the rather uniform conditions regarding maximum and minimum size classes. This rather uniform condition makes the more significant column 3, showing elimination by years in the high school.

TABLE XXXII

SHOWING VARIATIONS IN SIZE OF CLASSES IN MISSISSIPPI COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Kind of Group</i>	<i>Maximum Size Class</i>	<i>Minimum Size Class</i>	<i>Median Size Class</i>	<i>Q₁</i>	<i>Q₃</i>
First-year group -----	51	7	30	18	43
Second-year group -----	80	12	33	25	39
Third-year group -----	39	6	22	12	27
Fourth-year group -----	32	7	17	12	22

*Distribution of Students, North Carolina Farm-Life
High School*

In 1917 there were twenty-one farm-life high schools in North Carolina—a fact which has already been noted in another chapter. For the same year there were 1,701 pupils enrolled in these schools, an average of eighty-one pupils per school. A study of the distribution of total enrollments in these schools shows these facts. (Tenth Annual Report, State High School Inspector of Public Schools, North Carolina, 1917.) The largest of these high schools had an enrollment of 165, and the smallest an enrollment of twenty-six pupils. The median school in the group had

an enrollment of eighty-two, and the middle fifty per cent was between enrollments of fifty-eight and 128 pupils. About one-third of these high schools had more than 100 pupils enrolled, and only about one-sixth of them had less than fifty pupils. Four-fifths of them had enrollments between fifty and 150 pupils.

Distribution of Students by Years in These Schools

In the distribution of pupils in the first-year classes in this group of schools the largest class in any of the schools had an enrollment of sixty pupils. Twenty-five per cent of the group had classes between forty-four and sixty. The next, or the middle fifty per cent, are between forty-four and nineteen, with the last twenty-five per cent ranging from nineteen to eight. The median first-year class was thirty-nine in number. The largest second-year class was fifty-two and the smallest seven. One-fourth of them were between fifty-two and thirty-nine; one-half, between thirty-nine and eleven; and the remaining fourth, between eleven and eight. The median class of the second-year classes had eighteen pupils enrolled. In the third-year classes the maximum number decreased to thirty-nine, and the lower limit of the upper fourth was only twenty-nine. Between the quartiles the numbers were twenty-nine to eleven, grouping around fifteen, for the median number of the group. The minimum number decreased to five. In the fourth year the maximum class was forty-three, but the minimum class in this group of fourth-year classes had one pupil only. The quartiles in this group were fourteen and five. The median was nine.

SUMMARY

These facts of the distribution of the student population in these high schools are illustrated in the following table:

TABLE XXXIII
SHOWING VARIATION IN SIZE OF CLASSES BY YEARS IN NORTH
CAROLINA FARM-LIFE HIGH SCHOOLS

Kind of Group	Maximum Size Class	Minimum Size Class	Median Size Class	Q ₁	Q ₃
First-year group	60	8	39	16	44
Second-year group	52	7	18	11	39
Third-year group	39	5	15	11	29
Fourth-year group	43	1	9	5	14

In the foregoing table, column 3 again, evaluated in part from the character of the other columns, partly indicates the elimination which has taken place in this group of schools. The other columns show the general character of the distribution. Columns 1 and 2, when any pair of val-

ues is compared, show the variation in the size of the classes by years within this group of schools. Columns 4 and 5, when any pair of values is considered, show the range in variation for the middle fifty per cent, "normal group," in any year in this group of schools.

*Distribution of Students in Kentucky County High
Schools, by Schools*

In the small group of Kentucky high schools which have been developed under county board management, and (Report, Supervisor of High Schools, Kentucky, 1917) which are under county board control and largely supported by county funds, the distribution of the students show: That the size of the enrollments varies from 127 to ten. One-fourth of the schools vary in enrollment from 127 to half that number, the third quartile position being sixty-four. The next half varies from that number down to twenty-five, while the middle point in the third division is the median number thirty-eight. More than half this group of schools have enrollments less than fifty in number, a fourth of them being less than twenty-five. There is only one school having an enrollment of more than 100. On the whole, considering the distribution of schools by total enrollment, there is a rather wide range of variation shown. Twenty-five per cent of the schools with an enrollment of less than twenty-five seems a relatively large number of small high schools.

Distribution of Students in Four-Year High Schools

In the first-year classes of this group of schools the smallest class had an enrollment of only four students, while half of the group have enrollments of twenty-five and less. The median of the distribution is twenty. The fifty per cent between the quartiles ranges from thirteen to twenty-seven. Only two schools have more than fifty students enrolled in their first-year classes. The maximum class enrolled had fifty-six students. In the second-year classes the smallest class had only half as many as the minimum class in the other group. There are only two enrolled in it, and there were three classes in this second-year group which had less than five enrolled. The median was only seven, and the middle half was between the quartile values of five and seventeen. Only four classes had more than twenty enrolled, and the largest had thirty-one pupils. In the third-year classes the least one had one student enrolled, and half

of these classes had less than ten students. The middle fifty per cent of them was between quartile values of five for Q1 and fifteen for Q3. The median number was ten. There was only one third-year class enrolling more than twenty students, and it had twenty-one. In the final group, the fourth-year classes, there were two classes each of which had only one student. Twenty-five per cent had three and less than three. The median of this group is seven. The middle group boundaries were three and twelve. The largest class had twenty enrolled, and there were only twenty-five per cent with an enrollment of a dozen or more.

SUMMARY

The facts of the distribution of students of the Kentucky county high schools are summarized in the following table:

TABLE XXXIV

SHOWING VARIATIONS IN SIZE OF CLASSES BY YEARS IN CERTAIN KENTUCKY COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Kind of Group</i>	<i>Maximum Size Class</i>	<i>Minimum Size Class</i>	<i>Median Size Class</i>	<i>Q1</i>	<i>Q3</i>
First-year class -----	56	4	20	13	27
Second-year class -----	31	3	7	5	17
Third-year class -----	21	1	10	5	15
Fourth-year class -----	20	1	7	3	12

There are two facts shown rather clearly by the foregoing table. The first horizontal row shows a rather wide variation in the size of the schools, measured by student population. Column 3 seems to indicate rather poor holding power of the schools. Columns 4 and 5 show that for the middle fifty per cent the variation of the extreme from the central tendency is wide.

Distribution of Students in the Alabama County High Schools, by Schools

In 1917 the reports from the Alabama county high schools showed (Bulletin No. 58, Alabama State Department, Report of Inspector of Secondary Schools for 1916-1917) that the largest county high school in Alabama had an enrollment of 206. Ten of the fifty-seven schools reporting had an enrollment of 150 or more. The twenty-five per cent having the highest enrollment were above 130. The middle fifty per cent, which Professor Dimmitt has defined as the "normal zone" in his report, were between 130 and seventy. The twenty-five per cent of the schools with the smallest enrollment ranged from seventy to the

minimum enrollment in the group, which was thirty-seven students. The median enrollment for this group of schools was ninety-five. There was a total enrollment in these schools for the season quoted of 5,887 pupils.

Distribution of Students by Years in These Schools

In a distribution of students by years in these schools the largest first-year class had forty-four students enrolled. Half of the first-year classes had thirty or more enrolled. One-fourth of them had forty or more. The normal group ranges from a minimum of twenty to a maximum of thirty-seven. The median enrollment in these first-year classes was twenty-nine. One-fourth of them had fewer than twenty students enrolled, and the smallest class had only fourteen students. In the group of second-year classes the range in variation was from six in the smallest class to thirty-two in the largest. The range in the middle group was from seventeen the first quartile to twenty-five the third one. The median size class of the second-year classes was twenty. In the third year of the high school the maximum class had decreased in size one-half from that of the previous year. The median class in this group had only twelve students. The quartile positions were at nine and fifteen. This meant that the normal zone, which in the first-year group had its smallest class (twenty), later had enrolled only half as many in the class occupying that position. The largest class in it in the first year was twenty-nine; in the third year it was fifteen. The smallest class in the first-year distribution was fourteen; in the third year it was four. In the fourth-year classes there were four with a maximum number of twelve students enrolled. The smallest class was slightly larger than the smallest class in the third-year group, having five enrolled. The median in this group had only nine students, and the quartile positions were seven and eleven. These facts were seen in the following summary table:

TABLE XXXV

SHOWING VARIATION IN SIZES OF CLASSES BY YEARS IN THE ALABAMA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Kind of Group</i>	<i>Maximum Size Class</i>	<i>Minimum Size Class</i>	<i>Median Size Class</i>	<i>Q₁</i>	<i>Q₃</i>
First-year class	44	14	29	19	37
Second-year class	32	6	20	17	24
Third-year class	16	4	11	9	15
Fourth-year class	12	5	9	7	11

Studying column 3, the holding power of the Alabama high schools seemed far from satisfactory. The median class in the final year was less than one-third as large as

the median class in the first year. This was, perhaps, the most important point brought out by the table.

*Distribution of Students in Tennessee County High
Schools, by Schools*

The largest county high school in Tennessee enrolled 960 pupils. The smallest one considered in this group as a fully approved county high school enrolled thirty. There were seventy-one schools reported in this group. (Tennessee High School Inspector's Report, 1917-1918.) Twenty-five per cent of these county high schools have 225 and more pupils, while another twenty-five per cent had less than fifty-seven. Half of the high schools had enrollments between the quartiles 216 and fifty-eight. One-fifth the schools had less than fifty students, and about one-sixteenth have more than 500 students. The median school had 121 students.

Distribution of Students in These Schools by Years

In the first-year high-school class in these schools the classes showed a range of enrollments from 542 to fourteen. The fourth of the classes having the highest enrollment ranged from 130 to the maximum given above. The middle fifty per cent ranged from 130 to forty, the median class having seventy-five enrolled. In the second-year classes in these schools the maximum class found had an enrollment of 436 pupils. The upper quartile had seventy-five as the lower limit. The lowest quartile, which had the minimum class of twelve, ranged upward to twenty. The median class in this second-year group had forty students. About one-sixth of the classes enrolled over 100 pupils. The largest third-year class had 239 pupils; the smallest, less than a half dozen. The typical class in this year's group ("typical" defined as median) had thirty pupils. In the fourth-year class sizes varied from 140 to three students. The typical class had about eighteen. These facts summarized appear in

TABLE XXXVI

SHOWING VARIATION IN SIZES OF CLASS BY YEARS IN TENNESSEE
COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

Kind of Group	Maximum Size Class	Minimum Size Class	Median Size Class	Q ₁	Q ₃
First-year class	542	14	75	40	130
Second-year class	436	10	40	20	75
Third-year class	239	6	30	12	52
Fourth-year class	140	3	18	9	28

Distribution of Students in the Florida County High Schools

In Florida, as has already been noted in previous discussions, all the high schools of the county were county high schools, in that the real administrative authority was the county board of education. In this discussion only those county high schools belonging to the first group (four-year high schools, with three or more teachers) were used. In the distribution of student population in these schools, when broken up into quarters, the first quarter ranged from a maximum of 576 students to an enrollment of 100, the number at the third quartile position. In this upper quartile there was only six per cent (of the entire distribution) which had enrollments of more than 250. From 100 then the next quarter ran down to sixty-nine, the median position, the next quarter decreasing to forty-eight, the first quartile position; while the smallest quarter reached a minimum of twenty students, establishing a range of from 576 to twenty students. (Florida High School Inspector's Report, 1916.)

Florida County High Schools—Distribution by Years

In the first-year classes of these high schools, in the largest class there were 261 pupils; in the smallest one, only eight. In the second-year class the largest class was 183; in the smallest, five. In the third-year group the maximum decreased to 120, and in the fourth-year class it still further decreased to eighty-five. The smallest class in the third year had three students enrolled; in the fourth year it had only two. In the boundaries of the middle fifty-per-cent zone, the upper boundary, the third quartile position started at forty-two. In the second classes it was thirty; in the third, twenty-two; and in the fourth it had decreased to nineteen. The lower boundary of the first quartile started in the first-year classes at eighteen; was eleven in the second, eight in the third, and dropped to five in the fourth-year classes. The medians in the different groups were: In the first-year classes, twenty-five; in the second, sixteen; in the third, thirteen; and in the fourth year it was eight.

SUMMARY OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF FLORIDA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

In summary the facts are represented in the following table:

TABLE XXXVII

TABLE SHOWING VARIATIONS IN SIZES OF CLASSES BY YEARS IN
FLORIDA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

Kind of Group	Maximum	Minimum	Median	Q ₁	Q ₃
	Size Class	Size Class	Size Class		
First-year class	261	8	25	18	42
Second-year class	183	5	16	30	12
Third-year class	120	3	13	22	8
Fourth-year class	85	2	8	19	5

In the county high schools of Florida here cited the median size class in the last year of high school was one-third the median number in the first year. Of course this was not an absolute indication of elimination, although it is often used as an indicator of this. If it can be shown that there has been a very great increase in enrollment in the number of those entering the first-year classes of the high school during the past three years, column 3 might remain as it is without indicating elimination. If, on the other hand, the number was fairly constant during those three years, it means that two students were eliminated, while one was held to complete the course. On the basis of the principle quoted from Inglis at the beginning of the chapter, if the number of the students is the chief determining factor in the establishment of the number of instructors and other factors of equipment, it follows that there is a rather wide range of opportunities offered by schools ranging in enrollment from 576 to twenty, or even with the "normal zone" limits of from 100 to forty-eight.

Distribution of Students in Louisiana Parish High Schools

In Louisiana, high schools throughout the parish are classed as parish high schools, because the administrative control is lodged in the parish board. In studying the distribution of students in these schools, as in other cases, only four-year schools are used. (Louisiana High School Report, 1916-1917.) In the middle group of these, which might be said to constitute the typical high schools, the range in the number of students enrolled was from seventy-six, the third quartile, to thirty-five, the first one. The median of the distribution at the central point of this group was fifty-two. A typical parish high school might, then, be said to enroll from thirty-five to seventy-five pupils, with

the central tendency at fifty. Outside the typical group, the twenty-five per cent of the parish high schools which were largest range upward to a maximum enrollment of 718, between eleven and twelve per cent having more than 100 pupils. From the first quartile they range down to a minimum enrollment of seventeen, ten per cent having less than twenty-five students enrolled in all four classes.

Distribution of Students by Years in These Schools

The typical first-year class in these parish high schools lies between thirty and twelve in the number of students it enrolled, the middle point being twenty. Above thirty there are in the upper quartile twenty-five per cent of the classes with a range of enrollment of from thirty, to 298 students in the maximum case. Between two and three per cent of the classes had more than 100 students. Below twelve there are classes running down to a minimum of two students, at least ten per cent enrolling less than ten students. In the second-year classes the maximum enrollment was 148. In the third year that number increased to 188, but decreased again in the fourth year to eighty-four. The minimum number in the second year was two; in both the third and fourth year it was one. The typical class as determined by the median was fourteen, in the second-year class. In the third and fourth-year class it was nine and eight, respectively. The range from which typical classes might be chosen in the second-year group was by the quartile points twenty-three to nine; in the third year it was thirteen to six; and in the last year it was from fourteen to six.

SUMMARY

Summarized in tabulated form, these facts appear in the following table:

TABLE XXXVIII

SHOWING VARIATIONS IN SIZES OF CLASSES IN LOUISIANA PARISH HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Kind of Group</i>	<i>Maximum Size Class</i>	<i>Minimum Size Class</i>	<i>Median Size Class</i>	<i>Q₁</i>	<i>Q₃</i>
First-year class -----	298	2	20	12	29
Second-year class -----	148	2	14	9	23
Third-year class -----	188	1	9	6	16
Fourth-year class -----	84	1	8	6	15

A study of this table emphasizes the same two points which have been pointed out in the study of the distribution of students in the county high schools already discussed—wide variation in the number of students and a decrease in the size of the median class as it advances toward the final years of the high-school program.

*Distribution of Students in the Other States Having
County Boards*

In the other states of the South which have been included in this discussion and which have county boards of education the distribution of students is not discussed in this study, for reasons already assigned. The high schools which they include were not developed by county boards of education, and it would be to include another type of high school—one which represented another form of administration, control, and development than the county form—to include them. To “stick to text,” then, they are not included.

Distribution of Student Population by Schools

In a tabulated summary the facts which have been discussed concerning the distribution of the student population in the county high schools by states appear in the following:

TABLE XXXIX
SHOWING VARIATIONS IN SIZES OF COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS IN
STATES STUDIED

<i>Name of Group</i>	<i>Maximum Size School</i>	<i>Minimum Size School</i>	<i>Median Size School</i>	<i>Q₁</i>	<i>Q₃</i>
Tennessee county high schools.....	960	30	121	58	216
Louisiana parish high schools.....	718	17	52	35	76
Florida county high schools.....	576	20	69	48	100
Alabama county high schools.....	206	37	95	70	130
North Carolina farm-life high schools..	165	26	82	58	128
Mississippi agricultural high schools....	163	44	96	75	121
Kentucky county high schools.....	127	10	38	25	64

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A study of the distribution of the student population shows, in elimination, making no allowance for increasing attendance, which it seems fair enough to assume would be shown to some extent in median classes, all years, these conditions: In Mississippi agricultural high schools the elimination is not nearly so heavy as was found by either Thorndike (Thorndike, E. L., *The Elimination of Pupils from School*, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 4, 1917, pp. 11-45) or by Strayer (Strayer, G. D., *Age and Grade Census of Schools and Colleges*, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 5, 1911, pp. 6, 135, 136) in studies of elimination, including, respectively, twenty-three and 133 cities. On the basis of Thorndike's figures, the median class in the fourth-year group in these would have only half the number enrolled that it has, and by Strayer's figures the number would be materially reduced. North Carolina high schools, on the other hand, make a materially worse showing than was

found in either of the studies quoted. In the Kentucky schools the holding power was about the average of the results found in these two studies. Alabama corresponds almost exactly to Thorndike's figures, while Tennessee shows greater elimination than was found in either study. Florida also closely approximates the findings of Thorndike, while the schools of Louisiana approximate the average of the two. In the number of pupils per school Tennessee is the state where the median size county high school is larger than the average for high schools in all-sized communities as worked out by Inglis. (Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, pp. 120.) In all but two cases, however—Louisiana and Kentucky—the median size school is larger than the average for high schools in communities under 8,000. These would seem to indicate that the county high school has not materially improved holding power for its students over the other administrative types of high schools, and that it presents a wide variation in the number of pupils enrolled per school.

CHAPTER EIGHT

THE TEACHING FORCE IN CERTAIN GROUPS OF COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

Importance of the Preparation of Teachers

The recognition of the number of and the preparation of the teachers of the country, as two of the most important factors in the betterment of the educational conditions of the country, has been strongly proclaimed by various agencies. One of the most forceful of these statements was found in the wording and the contemplated action of the bill which, in the last national Congress, was introduced with the purpose of creating a department of the national government to administer public education. (S. 4987, Sixty-Fifth Congress, Second Session; a bill introduced in the Senate of the United States, October 10, 1918, by Mr. Hoke Smith, etc.) Section 16 of that bill, in attempting to provide closer coöperation between the states and the national government in the preparing of teachers, appropriated three-twentieths of the \$100,000,000 annual appropriation, contemplated as a national aid to education, for the specific purpose of training teachers. Not only was this sum set aside for this task, but the unit of apportionment chosen was the *number of teachers the state already had in service* compared to the total number in the country. This apportionment for teacher training was not the only allotment divided on this basis, but more than half of the whole annual appropriation was to be distributed in this way. This bill emphasized the importance of both the *number* and the *training* of the *teachers* by a great national force outside the ranks of the school people. It is for this reason alone that it is quoted—to show the growing force of that recognition. This recognition is strengthened by the reintroduction of the same principle in the bill before the present session of Congress. (Sixty-Sixth Congress, House Bill by Mr. Towner.)

Importance of Legal Qualifications for Teachers

So long as American education is administered on a state basis, so long will the legal requirement of teachers for certification be relatively an important consideration for each state. Much has been done by voluntary teachers' associations to raise the standards of preparation required of teachers. Inspection by state universities and other insti-

tutions of higher learning, and the work of such organizations as the North Central Association and of the Southern Commission of Colleges and Secondary Schools, have added much more; but the lower fringe of professional preparation can be made even only by legislation which fixes minimum requirement in the way of legally required qualifications. There are two ways of securing this. One is to make a certain definite quantitative requirement in the way of a degree intended to certify a certain number of years in training; the other method is to require what is supposedly a qualitative performance of testing knowledge through examination of the different kinds of subject-matter to be taught and ability to answer questions about the theoretic principles of teaching. Historically, the last-named plan is the older, being the one on which schools have depended.

Method of Study

In this study of teachers the emphasis is placed on the legally required qualifications in the different states. Largely for illustrative purposes, a few cases of the distribution of teachers per school for a state, and in some cases the salary distribution, are noted. For the same reasons illustrations in the distribution of the different types of training are given, but for the reason given in the preceding paragraph the emphasis is placed on the requirements set forth in the law.

Qualifications of Mississippi Agricultural High-School Teachers—Legal Requirements

It was found that all who teach in the agricultural high schools in Mississippi were required by law to pass an examination in the "free-school studies" and the subjects they were required to teach in said schools. (School Laws of Mississippi, 1918, p. 99.) These examinations were held at the same time and in the same way that other teachers' examinations were held. There was a state Board of Examiners, consisting of three members, who aided the State Superintendent in preparing the examination questions for the teachers of the state and who graded all papers for professional or state licenses. In the test of "free-school studies" the history of Mississippi was included. This, perhaps, would serve to keep outside talent from competing for positions in the schools, as the college graduate outside Mississippi usually would probably know next to nothing of the history of that state. If this phase of the examination was literally interpreted, it would seem

calculated to deprive Mississippi of outside blood, which is generally conceded to be a condition to be deplored in the teaching profession. There was another feature of the Code that is very noticeable, and that is the distinction legally made between the forms of certification. These distinctions really put the agricultural high-school license in a class between the license for elementary schools and the professional license. Examination in algebra, geometry, Cæsar, and Virgil, and any other subjects which the state board may add, were required of all who apply for this license. The enactments of the last Legislature (Laws of 1918, Chapter 226) provided that the State Board of Examiners may grant a state teachers' license to college graduates where nine hours of education was included in the graduate's work, and to those completing the sophomore year in colleges in the state requiring fourteen units entrance if those students have had six hours of education. Since this will permit the issuing of licenses to college graduates without examination, it seems that it would remove the objectionable features already referred to in the laws of 1914.

Qualifications of North Carolina County High-School Teachers—Legal Requirements

Every teacher in North Carolina, principal, supervisor, superintendent, assistant superintendent, in every public elementary and secondary school, both urban and rural, must be certified through a state board of "examiners and institute conductors." (Chapter 146, Public School Laws of 1917, an Act to establish a State Board of Examiners and Institute Conductors, Sections 1 and 2.) Teachers in the farm-life county high schools and in the other county high schools come under these general provisions. In addition to these qualifications (Chapter 71, Public Laws of 1911, an Act to provide for the establishment and maintenance of County Farm-Life High Schools, and for the promotion of Agriculture and Home Making, Section 12), no person could be employed as principal of one of the farm-life high schools who did not hold a teacher's certificate on all required subjects except Latin, Greek, and the modern languages. Further, in addition to these, a principal must have an additional certificate from the State Board of Examiners or a statement from the president of the Agricultural and Mechanical College which certifies that the principal has satisfied them that by special training and practical experience he was especially fitted for the position. In the case of a teacher in the department of home making

it was necessary to have the high-school certificate, and in the case of the principal the Latin, Greek, and the modern language were omitted. It was necessary for this teacher to satisfy both the board of examiners and the president of the State Normal and Industrial College that by special training and practical experience she was especially fitted for this position. The law did not especially provide that the teacher in the county farm-life high school should be a college graduate. The emphasis seemed to be on the certification. However, that clause which required the applicant to satisfy the president of the Agricultural and Mechanical College or the president of the Normal and Industrial School that because of special training, etc., he was especially fitted, might easily be interpreted to mean being a college graduate. That this was actually the case was borne out by the actual situation in these schools, where all but two of the teachers in these schools were agricultural college graduates. (Data furnished by Director of Vocational Education, Prof. T. E. Browne, in answer to a letter addressed to him, April, 1919.)

*Qualifications of Alabama Teachers in County High
Schools—Legal Requirements*

Certification of high-school teachers in Alabama might be secured in either of two ways. The applicant might secure a first-grade certificate by passing an examination in the common-school branches, the history of Alabama (history of Alabama not listed as one of the common-school branches, because it is not such outside the state of Alabama), and in algebra, geometry, physics, elementary psychology, the school laws of Alabama, advanced English, and, if it was to be used as a life certificate, history of education. This certificate would be made a life certificate when the holder has taught five years "with a high degree of efficiency." The examination was held three times yearly on certain fixed dates. It was given by the county superintendent, unless for some "good and sufficient" reason he designated some one else to do it. The examination questions were prepared by the State Board of Examiners, consisting of the State Superintendent and two other persons appointed by him, one of whom, the secretary, received \$2,400 per year and was a full-time man. The papers were marked by this board. (General School Laws of Alabama, 1915, Sections 1719-1745.) The other way to secure this first-grade certificate was to secure one of the diplomas granted by institutions whose graduates were accepted by this State Board of Examiners (Ibid., p. 33) or

by holding a certificate from another state standing for requirements equal to the Alabama first-grade graduates of Alabama Class A normal schools and normal schools in other states requiring an equal minimum of professional work. Every teacher in the Alabama county high schools must have either a first-grade or a life certificate. (Ibid., Article 20, Section 1865.) If the examinations were at all lived up to and the administrative machinery was provided for this, a wholly unqualified person could not be licensed to teach in these schools. For those who come by other than the examination route a minimum of two years of college training was insured with some professional training. While these standards are not sufficiently high for an ideal, they are at the same time immeasurably better than are no minimum requirements.

Kentucky County High-School Teachers—Legal Requirements

State diplomas and state certificates were found to be licenses to teach in Kentucky county high schools. The state had several grades of certificates. The two in the order named followed in rank by a county certificate which may be subdivided into two classes—first and second. The law specifically stated that the State Board of Education should have the power to determine the qualifications of and to issue certificates to the teachers in the public high schools. (Common School Laws of Kentucky, 1918, Volume II, No. 2, p. 91.) The state diploma was good in all schools controlled wholly or in part by the state. These diplomas could be obtained by examination in the common-school subjects, the science and art of teaching, psychology, English literature, algebra, geometry, physics, and elementary Latin, where the applicant could make an average grade of "ninety per centum," and not less than seventy on any one subject, or by holding either a certificate in another state calling for not less than these requirements, or by holding a diploma from an institution of higher learning, either within or without the state, approved by the state board.

Tennessee County High-School Teachers—Legal Requirements

Tennessee laws distinguished sharply between certificates for elementary and those for secondary schools. (Compilation of Tennessee School Laws, June 30, 1917, pp. 45-50.) Every one who would teach in the public high schools (except in cities having over 75,000 inhabitants, to which this

law does not apply) must have either a high-school or a "professional" certificate. To get a high-school certificate by examination, it was necessary to have passed a satisfactory examination in the history of education, principles and practice of teaching and school management, with especial reference to high-school work, English literature and language, and any subject which will be named on his certificate. The State Superintendent issued all certificates, and could call to his aid in administering the giving of the examinations the presidents of the different normal schools, the different inspectors, secondary and elementary, and could hire any help he needs in grading papers. The "professional" certificate, which was issued by the State Superintendent and was not based on examinations, had the following requirements and carried the following privileges (only the certificates which may be used in high schools are included in this discussion): To any one who graduated from the full course of the normal school, a professional certificate, good in all schools, except in first-class high schools, was given. Any graduate of the state university who had finished six half-year courses in professional work, not less than two of which bore directly on high-school work, could receive a first-grade high-school certificate. The State Superintendent could issue certificates without examination to graduates of other institutions whose requirements for admission and for graduation were not lower than were those of the state normal schools or of the state university.

Tennessee, then, had a kind of certificate based on examination for all county high-school teachers. In granting certificates to graduates of institutions it legally provided that no one would be licensed to teach in a first-class high school unless the applicant was more than a normal-school graduate.

Legally Required Qualifications of Florida County High-School Teachers

It was found that Florida offered ten grades of certification. (Laws of Florida Relating to Education, Chapter 7372, date 1917.) By law it signified that a principal of a junior county high school should hold as minimum requirement a first-grade certificate, supplemented by a certificate covering all the branches taught in the junior high school. The first-grade certificate was based on satisfactory examination in all the elementary-school branches, in theory and practice of teaching, in agriculture, in physical geography, and in teaching. A person, to be eligible to hold a principalship of either an intermediate or senior county high

school (three-year and four-year high schools, a junior high school in Florida being legally the first two years of regular high schools), must possess a life state certificate, a state certificate, or a graduate certificate. A state certificate was granted after twenty-four months of successful teaching and successfully passing both an oral and written examination in geometry, trigonometry, physics, botany, zoölogy, Latin, rhetoric, English literature, psychology, and general history. Life certificates were based on successful teaching, in addition to the qualifications required for state certificates. County high-school teachers in senior high schools must possess a state certificate as minimum training. This could be obtained either by examination or by the presentation of a diploma from a standard university, college, or normal school. The State Board of Examiners determined what grade of certification the degree or diploma should entitle the holder to. The privilege of substituting training for examination was extended to teachers from all states. There was a State Board of Examiners, consisting of three members, who prepared all examination questions, conducted all examinations, oral and written, and graded all papers. These three examiners were full-time men, receiving each \$2,000 and traveling expenses yearly. (Ibid., Sections 19-21.)

Legally, Florida had provided for these things respecting the qualifications of her teachers. If the examinations were at all rigorously administered, the array of subject-matter required in examinations for state certificates would exclude all but those possessing a high grade of scholarship. Accepting diplomas and degrees earned within the state in place of these examinations in long lists of subjects placed the emphasis very definitely on training rather than examination. Extending the same privileges to teachers in other states should insure a sufficient number of those who have been trained outside the state to prevent "professional in-breeding."

Legally Required Qualifications of Louisiana Parish High-School Teachers

Louisiana laws for the certification of teachers provided that graduates of all schools in all states meeting the standards prescribed for the different grades of certification could be licensed to teach without examination. All others must be examined. (Public School Laws of Louisiana, p. 125, Section 48(b).) Thus the law very definitely put the emphasis for certification on graduation from a standard training school. The standard school, in the case of

normal schools, must provide at least two years of college work above Louisiana high schools. Colleges must be four years in advance of the same prerequisites. High-school teachers in the parish high school were required to have special high-school certificates. The subjects required in the examination for this special school certificate were not set forth by law, but the State Board of Education was given complete authority to prescribe whatever subjects it saw fit to name. This board had entire charge of the examinations, but was required to appoint an examining committee of as many members as might be needed to carry out the administration of the examinations and to fix the compensation this committee was to receive.

Legally Required Qualifications of Georgia High-School Teachers

The State Board of Education of Georgia, in compliance with the certification laws of 1911, worked out a plan for certification, including both a method based on examination and one based on training. (Georgia School Laws, 1917, p. 34.) It provided high-school certification by examination, with five groups of subject-matter named—mathematics, English, science, languages, and history—from which the applicant must choose three subjects. In addition to these three subjects, the examination included school management, with the questions for 1918 based on Hollister's "High School Administration," and methods of teaching, which were for the same year based on Strayer and Noisworthy's "How to Teach." The tenure of certification based on these examinations ranged from one to three years, determined by the per cent mark obtained on the examination. To receive a professional certificate based on a degree, the plan provided that the graduate who has had nine year hours' work in education should receive a professional certificate, good in any school under the direction of the State Board of Education; a graduate of a standard college not having had the courses in education could, by passing an examination in the professional subjects prescribed for secondary certificates, receive a temporary certificate, which could be made the equal of the other certificate by doing an equivalent amount of professional work in an approved summer school. The same privileges were extended to graduates of institutions in other states, with the exception that they are required to take examinations in the history and geography of Georgia.

Certificates of Legal Requirements of Georgia Teachers

The plan of certification based on examination prescribed only secondary subject-matter in the five groups. A thorough knowledge of the subjects taught in secondary schools, plus a knowledge of Hollister's "High School Administration" and Strayer and Noisworthy's "How to Teach," and the "Manual of Methods," was all that they required. There seemed no reason why a strong student could not master these three in a summer term at any of the teachers' colleges. How serious this may be is not the province of this study to determine.

Legally Required Qualifications of County High-School Teachers in South Carolina, Virginia, Texas, and Maryland

For reasons which have been discussed in detail in previous chapters, the required qualifications for county high-school teachers in the remaining group of states having county administration are discussed in less detail than the others. South Carolina high-school laws provided that every high-school teacher in a state-aided high school must have a first-grade certificate, properly registered with the county superintendent of education. (General School Laws of South Carolina, p. 66, date 1916.) College diplomas alone were not considered certificates, nor was certification based on examination only. After July 1, 1917, the fitness of the teacher was to be determined by the courses pursued by that teacher in preparation for present work, and administratively this was to be worked out through a written recommendation to the state board from its representative. A certificate to teach in a Virginia high school could be obtained in any one of the four general ways—on certification or diploma, on certification of the completion of at least sixty hours of standard college work, on state examination, and through summer-school courses. In the long list of certificates specified by the Virginia law the limitations of each were specified for the convenience of administering boards. (Virginia School Laws, 1915, p. 175.) Any one in Texas who held a state first-grade certificate or a state permanent certificate could teach in the high schools of the state. The state first-grade certificate could be obtained by examination, by holding a *dégré* from a state normal school, college, or university. (Public School Laws, Texas, 1915, p. 43.) Maryland laws required of every high-school teacher in the state-aided county high schools a high-school teacher's certificate. It was granted

to any applicant who was a graduate of a standard college or had the equivalent scholarship, provided that at least two continuous years were spent in the study of some high-school subject, and provided, further, that at least two hundred recitation hours were spent in the study of education. A high-school principal's certificate required, in addition to this, a full year's graduate work at a standard university, one-third of which was devoted to the study of secondary education. All the details of certification were in the hands of the State Superintendent and his assistants.

SUMMARY OF THE REQUIRED QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS IN COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

In every one of the states studied it was possible to obtain certification in either of two ways—the examination route or by holding a degree from a standard institution. Some states, by the list of subjects in which they required examination, would seem to put the emphasis on securing the necessary certification through regular training. Only one, however (Maryland), directly placed all emphasis on the training and made examination only a final possibility. Not one of these states required the degree or made any quantitative requirement in training a prerequisite to examination. Other professions, notably medicine, impose this double test of fitness. In several of the states the prospective teacher is “legally” tested in both the theory and practice of teaching. Since no plans were suggested, nor was any one empowered to work out a plan for testing practice, the question naturally arose: *Was the applicant tested in the practice of teaching, or was he tested in the theories of the practice of teaching?* Another question naturally arose: Why did some of these states emphasize the making of a passing mark in local history one prerequisite for certification? The working out of this would seem likely to discourage the coming into the state of really desirable teaching talent. Outside the particular state the local history is usually considered of relatively insufficient importance to warrant the emphasis on very many details. Is there not some danger of fostering either sectionalism or provincialism in too much emphasis on state history?

Distribution of Teachers in County High Schools— First Group

In discussing the distribution of county high-school teachers, the same grouping will be used which has been used

throughout the study. The farm-life high schools of North Carolina, the agricultural schools of Mississippi, and the county high schools of Alabama will constitute the first group. A small group of county high schools which have been developed under county control in Kentucky have in other chapters been included in this group. They are not so included in this discussion, as they were purposely not separated from the other high schools in this part of the study, the schools for this discussion being chosen on the basis of being four-year high schools.

The Kentucky schools were mentioned in the second group in discussing the teaching forces. However, much less attention was paid to grouping than in the other discussions. In the distribution all the schools belonging to what has been called the "first two groups" have been used. They may be considered, so far as this discussion is concerned, as constituting group one.

*North Carolina Farm-Life, Mississippi Agricultural,
and Alabama County High Schools—
Distribution of Teachers*

In the farm-life schools of North Carolina the number of teachers ranged from two teachers in one case to eight at the other extreme. (Tenth Annual Report, Inspector of North Carolina High Schools, Table I.) The typical school had five teachers, whether the type be determined by the most schools having a certain number, the mode, or by the number which the school at the middle point, the median, has, which number also is five.

In the agricultural high schools of Mississippi the smallest number of teachers in any school was three and the largest number was thirteen. (Biennial Report, State Superintendent, Mississippi, Table III.) The median school had six teachers, and there were more schools with this number than with any other, there being one-fourth of the schools with that number. One-half of the schools in this group had five, six, or seven teachers.

In Alabama nearly half of the county high schools had four teachers. (Bulletin No. 58, State Department of Education, Alabama.)

The number throughout the distribution was fairly uniform, the smallest number of teachers being three and the largest number six. More than five-sixths of these schools had either three or four teachers.

*Kentucky, Florida, Tennessee, Louisiana, and Georgia—
Distribution of Teachers in County High Schools*

When all of the four-year county high schools in Kentucky, both those which were real county high schools and those which had contracts with county boards, were considered, the range in the variation of the number of teachers was from two to sixty-five. Three was the number most often found, more than one-third of the schools having it. This was also the median school. Two was the second favorite, more than one-fourth of the schools having only two teachers. There were relatively few of these schools, less than one-tenth, which had more than six teachers. (Biennial Report of the Supervisor of High Schools of Kentucky, 1917, p. 166.) In Florida the typical county high school had five teachers. (Biennial Report, Superintendent of Schools, Florida, p. 239.) Only schools grouped by the inspector as belonging to the first class were included in this number. The smallest number of teachers which any one school has was three, and the largest number was fifteen. The schools group around three, four, and five teachers. More than three-fifths of these schools had one of these numbers in the distribution. In the Tennessee and the Kentucky high schools the range in the number of teachers was wide. There were two four-year high schools which had only one teacher, and there was another school with forty-eight teachers. The median school had seven teachers, but the number of schools which had four teachers was larger than the number of schools with any other number of teachers. One-fourth of the schools had more than twelve teachers. In Louisiana four teachers was both median and mode. One-half of the group of 150 schools have that number of teachers. At least five-sixths of the schools had three, four, or five teachers. In Georgia the median school was a six-teacher school, though four was the favorite number, there being twice as many schools with four teachers as with six. Three, four, and five constituted the favorite numbers, fully one-third of the schools having one of these numbers. These facts are summarized in the following table:

TABLE XL

SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS IN DIFFERENT STATES

<i>Group of Schools</i>	<i>Maximum No.</i>	<i>Minimum No.</i>	<i>Median No.</i>	<i>Modal No.</i>
North Carolina farm-life high schools-----	8	2	5	5
Louisiana parish high schools-----	25	2	4	4
Mississippi district agricultural high schools-----	13	3	6	6
Tennessee county high schools-----	48	1	7	4
Alabama county high schools-----	6	3	4	3
Kentucky county high schools-----	65	2	3	3
Florida county high schools-----	15	3	5	5
Georgia county high schools-----	124	1	6	4

The Training of the Teachers in Louisiana, Kentucky, Georgia, and Florida County High Schools

Illustrative of the training of these teachers in these county high schools, a number of data regarding the distribution of training in several of the states is quoted. It was found that in the parish (Annual Report, Louisiana High Schools, p. 80) high schools of Louisiana, in the same group which was used for the distribution of teachers, the number of university and college graduates ranged from one to sixteen. One-fifth of these schools had only one university graduate. The typical school (defined as the median of those schools having university graduates) had two college-trained teachers. Two-thirds of these schools had not more than two graduates of universities or colleges on their staff. In the distribution of normal-school graduates in these schools, nearly half the schools which had them had only one. The median number was two. Relatively there were few schools having normal graduates which had more than two. Distributed through the group there were some 121 teachers without degrees or diplomas. One teacher in this classification was the number most often found possessed by those schools which had them. Two, however, was the median number possessed. Few schools had more than three teachers without degrees.

In Georgia the qualifications of the high-school teachers in the county high schools (Report of High School Inspector of Georgia, 1917), based on the holding of a high-school license or professional certificate, showed that there were two schools in the group of four-year high schools considered where there were no teachers holding high-school certificates. The median school, however, had six teachers with such license. The favorite number expressed by the mode was four. There were thirty-two schools in the group where there were no teachers without high-school certificates. There was one school in the group, however, with fourteen teachers without this license. The median

of the group having teachers without this license had none, and the mode strongly had none. One-fourth of them, however, had one or more teachers without it.

In Kentucky, in the four-year county high schools, one-third of the schools which had college graduates had only one. Almost a second third had only two, which was the median number. The favorite determined by the mode, however, was one. Of those having normal-school graduates, the favorite number was decidedly one by both median and mode. A very small fraction of the group had more than two. Of those schools with instructors who were neither normal-school nor university graduates, the favorite was very strongly one. Relatively very few had more than two such teachers, though one school was found with eleven. (Monograph Report, Supervisor of Kentucky High Schools, page 166.)

In the county high schools of Florida, in the first classification, as designated by the inspector, there were two schools which had only one college graduate. The median number of college graduates possessed, however, was four, and the favorite number was two. There were seventeen of these schools which had teachers who were not graduates of a college. There was one school which had five teachers who had not finished college, but the median number of non-graduates in the schools which had them was two per school. Facts concerning the training of teachers in these schools appear in the following table:

TABLE XLI
SHOWING VARIATION IN NUMBER OF DEGREES HELD BY TEACHERS IN
CERTAIN COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

		Maximum No. with Degree from			Minimum No. with Degree from			Median with Degree from			Mode with Degree from		
		Col. or Univ.			Col. or Univ.			Col. or Univ.			Col. or Univ.		
		mal None			mal None			mal None			mal N'e		
La. Parish	H. S.	16	7	4	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	1
Ky. County	H. S.	44	18	11	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
Fla. County	H. S.	13	0	5	1	0	1	4	0	2	2	0	1
Ga. County	H. S.	38	0	14	0	0	0	6	0	0	4	0	0

(Data in Georgia county high schools are representative of high-school certification, as explained earlier in the chapter, and not of degrees held.)

Illustrative of Some Salaries in Florida and Alabama County High Schools

In Florida the salaries of the principals of the county high schools ranged from \$3,000 to \$1,000. The median salary in this group of schools was \$1,500, but there were more \$1,200 salaries than any other. The average salaries of the teachers, distributed by schools, ranged from \$490 per year

to \$1,100. The median salary was \$700, and there were more teachers receiving that salary than any other salary. In Alabama in the county high schools the maximum salary received by any principal was \$2,000; the minimum was \$1,200. The median salary of principals was \$1,500, which was strongly the favorite number, more than half the principals receiving that amount. Teachers get salaries ranging from \$340 to \$995. The median teacher's salary was \$720. This was also the mode.

Mississippi Agricultural County High Schools—Salaries

In the Mississippi agricultural county high schools the average salaries of teachers, distributed by schools, ranged from \$357 per year to \$1,025. The median salary was \$675, which was also the mode.

Tabulated facts concerning salaries appear so:

TABLE XLII
SHOWING TYPICAL SALARIES AND VARIATIONS IN SAME

Schools	Maximum Salaries		Minimum		Median		Mode	
	Prin.	Teach.	Prin.	Teach.	Prin.	Teach.	Prin.	Teach.
Florida -----	\$3,000	\$1,100	\$1,000	\$490	\$1,500	\$700	\$1,200	\$700
Alabama -----	2,000	995	1,200	340	1,500	720	1,500	720
Mississippi ----		1,025		357		675		675

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In general, the legally required minimum qualifications which teachers must have in the county high schools studied there was a noticeable lack of uniformity. This was, perhaps, the most pronounced feature concerning these requirements. A second thing which was very noticeable was the tendency to emphasize matters of local importance, as state history, as part of the required qualifications of high-school teachers. A third thing of importance was the practice of what may seem to be the more difficult way of securing a measure of the teacher's ability. It is doubtful what the unstandardized questions which were used in state examinations for teachers do measure. Certainly to require a bachelor's degree from a standard college or university, with required special majors and minors for teaching of different courses, seems a much more nearly certain way of getting the product sought.

The distribution of the number of teachers by schools showed a wide variation. This variation was found within any one system and between any two systems. It would help to remedy the situation to require a certain minimum number of teachers. Variation above that minimum need not be other than a desirable feature.

The conclusion suggested by illustrations chosen from the situation regarding teachers' salaries in these county high schools is: The situation is very far from the administrative principle which the most progressive of administrators are beginning to advocate and which has already been tried out in educational systems other than our own—that of *equal quantitative training for all teachers, and equal, if not identical, remuneration for service rendered.*

Why, for instance, should the average principal's salary in a Florida county high school be three times that of the average high-school teacher's? Quantitative training, as legally required minimum qualifications, is not materially different. Or how can Mississippi have in her agricultural high schools an average minimum salary of \$357 per year and hope to secure an adequately prepared teaching force?

CHAPTER NINE

PROGRAMS OF STUDY

Definition of "Programs of Study"

"Programs of study," as used in this chapter, is defined to mean the collection of all the curricula; and since "curricula" is defined to mean the collection of courses in the different subjects leading to a diploma, the term "program of studies," then, is the all-inclusive term for the several courses. "A course" is accepted as meaning all which is taught in a single subject—to illustrate, the course in English, the history course, etc. In brief, the term "program of study" is used to correspond to what was formerly and what is still very commonly meant by "course of study." When the term "courses of study" is used as in this paragraph, it is used in its plural sense, meaning the different individual courses which go to make up the program of studies. This is in no sense an attempt to introduce something new in terminology, but rather to conform to the recommendation made a few years ago by the N. E. A. Committee, which recommendation has come to be pretty generally accepted by writers on secondary education.

Importance of Courses of Study

The importance of the facts concerning the distribution of these courses is set forth by Cubberley in his discussions of the different problems of the public-school administration. (Cubberley. *Public School Administration*, p. 277.) "One of the quickest means for determining the ideals and purposes which actuate a school system," says he, "is to examine the courses of study prescribed for the school." "From such an examination the character of the ideals of the administration as to the purposes of education can quickly be told." It is with this view of the importance of these courses in mind that the study represented in this chapter is made; for it is believed that while, for reasons already expanded in previous chapters, the county as a unit of secondary education is peculiarly adapted to the South, its ultimate usefulness in that or any other section must depend pretty largely on the selection of the courses of study which is made.

Methods of Studying These Courses of Study

In studying their programs of study, the county high school will be divided into two groups—one, those high

schools where uniform programs are required for all the county high schools of the state; *two*, those schools where the programs are not specifically prescribed by this central authority. Subdivisions of this first group may be suggested by the study, which will be made by studying in detail several of those programs and a discussion of several of the most salient facts concerning them.

Programs of Study for Alabama County High Schools

The program of studies which the Alabama county high schools use is uniform and is prescribed by the State High School Commission. It provides four curricula, as set forth below:

TABLE XLIII

SHOWING PROGRAM OF STUDIES FOR ALABAMA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

SCIENCE CURRICULUM	LATIN CURRICULUM	MODERN LANGUAGE CURRICULUM	VOCATIONAL CURRICULUM
<i>First Year</i>			
English	English	English	English
Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics
Science	Latin	Latin	Science
Social Science	Social Science	Social Science	Vocational Agriculture
Drawing	Drawing	Drawing	
Manual Training	Manual Training	Manual Training	
<i>Second Year</i>			
English	English	English	English
Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics
Science	Latin	Latin	History
History	History	History	Vocational Agriculture
Woodworking (boys)	Woodworking	Woodworking	
Domestic Science	Domestic Science	Domestic Science	
(girls)	Bookkeeping	Bookkeeping	
Bookkeeping	Home and School	Home and School	
Home and School	Gardening	Gardening	
Gardening			
<i>Third Year</i>			
English	English	English	English
Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics
Science	Latin	French, Spanish	Science
History	History	History	Vocational Agriculture
Home and School	Home and School	Home and School	
Gardening	Gardening	Gardening	
<i>Fourth Year</i>			
English	English	English	History
Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics
Science	Latin	French, Spanish	Science
History	History	History	Vocational Agriculture
Economics	Latin	Latin	
Nursing and First			
Aid			
Domestic Science			

(Bulletin, Department of Education, Rules and Regulations, Courses of Study, Adopted Textbooks, for County High Schools, date 1918, p. 7)

In the general regulations of the High School Commission it was provided that a high school with less than four teachers could not offer all these parallel curricula. For them the modern-language curriculum was not offered, Latin be-

ing the only foreign language given. Since in the first year of the four curricula English and mathematics were identical and home and school gardening was required of every one, the main differences between these curricula were not so great. Really they seemed these. The Latin and the modern English curricula, which were identical, differ from the science curricula in that Latin had replaced science. The science differed from the vocational in that it had courses in social science and domestic science where the other had vocational agriculture. In the second year the language curricula were again identical, and the science course differed from the vocational by having woodworking, domestic science, and bookkeeping, while the latter had fifteen "clock hours" of vocational agriculture. In the third year the modern language curriculum had Spanish or French in place of Latin, and the science curriculum had modern European history in place of vocational agriculture. In the last year the modern-language curriculum had both the modern language and Latin, and the science had American history and the elements of rural economics, with nursing and domestic science in place of more vocational agriculture. In general, it appeared very much as if the four curricula had evolved from two, where the fundamental distinction had been Latin versus science. The modern-language curriculum might well be a modification of the Latin, made by adding two units of modern language and dropping one of Latin. It will readily be seen that both of these curricula meet most college-entrance requirements. The fact that some colleges and universities require three units of Latin, if any is accredited, probably accounts for the unit which remains in the fourth-year work. The vocational curriculum might easily be considered a modification of the science curriculum to meet the demands of the "Smith-Hughes Act." It could easily have been formed by substituting vocational agriculture for what any but a specialist in vocational education would, perhaps, be prone to call the "prevocational" courses of the science curriculum.

Programs of Mississippi Agricultural High Schools

The program of studies for the Mississippi agricultural high schools offered but one curriculum. Its provisions were uniform for all the high schools of this group. They were:

TABLE XLIV
SHOWING PROGRAM OF STUDIES, MISSISSIPPI AGRICULTURAL HIGH
SCHOOLS

<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
Agriculture	Agriculture	Agriculture	Agriculture
Home Science	Home Science	Home Science	Home Science
English	English	English	English
Arithmetic	Algebra	Plane Geometry	History
General Agriculture*	History	History	Agriculture*
English*	Agriculture*	English*	History*
Arithmetic*	Algebra*		
	History*		

(Bulletin No. 10, 1917, Part II, County Agricultural High Schools, Course of Study)

The thing most noticeable about this curriculum was the entire absence of any foreign-language study and the arrangements of the electives, which seem to be extended work in the same subjects rather than additional subjects. The course was short, not only in foreign language, but in a study of the basic sciences, there appearing four years of agriculture without any supporting sciences. There was an absence also of any kind of work in the industrial arts. However, provisions made for the teaching of vocational agriculture (Educational Bulletin No. 11, Vocational Series No. 1, date 1918, p. 25) provided classes in vocational agriculture with instruction including class and laboratory work equivalent to five ninety-minute periods per week for not less than thirty-two weeks. It also provided supervised farm practice for an equivalent period and extension service in at least three lines of endeavor. These additions to the curriculum were probably made to fit the schools to the "Smith-Hughes" Act.

*Program of Studies in North Carolina Farm-Life High
Schools*

In 1918 nine of the twenty-one farm-life high schools of North Carolina had become vocational schools under the State Board of Vocational Education for North Carolina, date 1918. As this seems to be the indicated future for these farm-life schools, the program of studies which they use is the one listed here. It is recognized that this program is not in use as yet in all these schools; but it is thought it will very soon be, and for that reason it is used. It provided one curriculum.

TABLE XLV
SHOWING PROGRAM OF STUDIES FOR NORTH CAROLINA FARM-LIFE
HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
English	English	English	English
Mathematics	History	History	Economics
Science	Mathematics	Science	Civics
Agriculture	Agriculture	Agriculture	Hygiene and Sanitation
Practical Farm Work	Practical Farm Work	Practical Farm Work	Agriculture
			Practical Farm Work

The above curriculum showed an entire absence of foreign-language work, both ancient and modern. Its graduates were prepared for college entrance only to colleges which required neither, and would be handicapped in college work in all colleges which required either language for the completion of a degree. Another feature of this program was that it provided that fifty per cent of the pupil's time should be devoted to vocational and fifty per cent be devoted to nonvocational work. The time of instruction was not to be less than 450 minutes in recitation and related subject work and 450 minutes in practical. (Ibid., p. 14.)

Kentucky County High-School Program of Studies

For the Kentucky county high schools the state departments offered a number of curricula. These were designated as "standard," scientific, English, and "classical." (Bulletin No. 6, Volume IX, Kentucky Department of Education, "Manual and Courses of Study for Public High Schools," p. 13, date 1916.) As the last three named curricula could be obtained from modifications of the "standard," the "standard" is given and modifications noted.

TABLE XLVI
SHOWING CURRICULA IN KENTUCKY COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

STANDARD CURRICULUM			
<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
English*	English*	English*	English*
Algebra*	Algebra* and Arith-	Plane Geometry*	Solid Geometry
Physical Geography	metic	Physics	Trigonometry
Physiology	Biology	English History	Chemistry
Latin	Latin	Latin	American History
German	German	German	Civics
French	French	French	Latin
Ancient History	M. and M. History	Bookkeeping	German
Drawing	Industrial Geography	Agriculture	French
General Science	Domestic Science	Commercial Geogra-	Political Economy
Elementary Agriculture	Mechanical Drawing	phy	Pedagogy
	Manual Training	Manual Training	Psychology
	Spelling		Manual Training
	Penmanship		Domestic Science

To determine the science curriculum, it was necessary to select for the first year from the standard curriculum the

subjects of English, algebra, physical geography, ancient history or Latin; for the second year, English, algebra, biology, Latin and ancient history, and household economics or manual training; for the third year, English, plane geometry, physics, English history, manual arts or home economics; and for the fourth year, English, solid geometry, chemistry, agriculture, American history, civics, and rural life studies.

To determine the English curriculum in the first year, it was necessary to select as in the science, except that there was an election between ancient history and physical geography instead of between physical geography and first-year science, and an election between Latin and German instead of between Latin and ancient history. The English curriculum in the first year added courses in home economics and manual training. In the second year, where in the science curriculum the election was between a year of general biology and either botany or zoölogy, in the English it was between physiology and botany and M. and M. history. In science, where the election was between Latin and history, in the English it was between Latin and German this same year. The English did not provide household economics and manual training, but drawing instead, in the second year. In the third year the only difference in these curricula was the inclusion of bookkeeping in the English curriculum. In the fourth year the differences were that solid geometry was not included in the English course, but was in the science; while political economy appeared in the English and not in the science. Pedagogy was also in this year of the English curriculum. If not more than three constants were required and if sixteen units of work constituted the basis of work for graduation, it seems that it would be easily possible for two students to enter these two curricula and come out at completion with exactly the same subjects. In fact, if a desire to keep down the number of classes or to keep well within subjects accredited by most colleges should act as factors, this would seem to be the natural result, and it would be hard to determine what the differences between these curricula were. In the classical the courses were:

TABLE XLVII
SHOWING COURSES IN DIFFERENT KENTUCKY COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS'
CURRICULA

<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
English	English	English	English
Latin	Latin	L. or M. L.*	L. or M. L.*
Algebra	Algebra	Geometry	Geometry
Ancient History or Physical Geography	M. and M. History	English History or Physics	American History and Government or Ped- agogy or Psychology

*Modern Language

These last three curricula—the English, the science, and the classical—seem to have been derived from what was termed the “standard” curriculum. They could be used in any first-class county high school. Any one curriculum or all could be used. Other special curricula could be formed from the “standard” as these were formed, provided the starred subjects were included.

Florida County High Schools—Program of Studies

In Florida the State Department of Education provided at least four different programs of studies. One is for the two-year high school, with at least one teacher. It permitted of an election between a classical and a Latin curriculum. The difference between the curricula was that one has two years of Latin, while the other has two years of science. The school elected between the two, but could attempt only one curriculum. For the three-year high school, with at least two teachers, the same plan, with the same restrictions, was offered. The same fundamental differences existed between the courses. For the small-town high school, with at least two teachers, besides the principal, there was a program of studies which was a combination—classical-science curriculum—but which existed as one curriculum. For the four-year high school, with at least four teachers, there was a program with three required subjects and one elective subject in the first year, two required and two elective in the second, and two elective and two required in the third, with the same selection in the fourth year. This program follows. Starred subjects are required.

TABLE XLVIII

SHOWING PROGRAM OF STUDIES FOR FLORIDA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
English*	English*	English*	English*
Algebra*	Algebra or Geom- etry*	Algebra* (one-half year)	American History and Government*
Ancient History*	Latin	or	Latin
Latin	Modern History	Geometry (one year)	French
Physical Geography	Botany or Zoölogy	Latin	Spanish
General Science	Agriculture	French	Social Science
Agriculture	Home Economics	Spanish	Psychology
Home Economics	Manual Training	Solid Geometry	Manual Training
Manual Training	Commercial Arith- metic	Physics	Agriculture
Commercial Arith- metic	Shorthand	Chemistry	Physics
Physiology	Bookkeeping	Agriculture	Chemistry
Shorthand	Music	Bookkeeping	Plane Trigonometry
Music	Drawing	Home Economics	Shorthand
Drawing		Manual Training	Solid Geometry
		Shorthand	Business Arithmetic
		Commercial Arith- metic	Bookkeeping
		Music	Commercial English
		Drawing	Typewriting
			Music
			Drawing

The possibilities of such a program lie in its administration. If a number of restrictions are thrown around the elections, it may be almost as narrowly restricted in its range as the typical classical program. If, on the other hand, the elections are left free, the equivalent of a number of curricula may arise within this single curriculum.

Tennessee County High Schools—Programs of Study

In Tennessee there existed the program of studies which was planned for the county high schools before the passage of the "Smith-Hughes" Act and the program which had more recently been evolved to permit them to become vocational schools and to participate in the "Smith-Hughes" funds. The original program of studies is given first. It is of the Florida type—one curriculum with a number of prescribed subjects and a wider range of electives. Starred subjects are required. (Course of Study for the County High Schools of Tennessee, date 1918, p. 9.)

TABLE XLIX

SHOWING ORIGINAL PROGRAM OF STUDIES FOR TENNESSEE COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
English*	English*	English*	English*
Arithmetic and Algebra*	Algebra*	Plane Geometry*	American History*
Biology*	Agriculture	Latin	Latin
Agriculture	Manual Training	French	French
Home Economics	Home Economics	Spanish	Spanish
Manual Training	Physiography	Stenography	Stenography
Latin	Latin	Bookkeeping	Bookkeeping
	Ancient History	M. and M. History	Solid Geometry
		Physics	

The modifications as they exist that the schools may become vocational ones are next given. (*Ibid.*, p. 11.)

TABLE L

SHOWING MODIFIED PROGRAM FOR TENNESSEE COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
English	English	English	English
Arithmetic and	Algebra	Farm Arithmetic	American History and
Algebra	Live Stock Produc-	Elementary Econom-	Civics
Biology	tion	ics	Chemistry
Agriculture	Physiography	Horticulture	Farm Management
Field Practice	Farm Practice	Project Work	Farm Machinery
			Project Work

It is seen that the modification of the program caused the school to prepare for agriculture as a vocation, and does not fit for college entrance. It offers a very wide departure from the college course.

Maryland County High Schools—Programs of Study

In Maryland for five years the county high schools have followed a "state course of study" prepared by the State Department of Education. During that period the department has been studying the "strengths and weaknesses" of the present program. These facts and the changed social conditions due to the war are to be made the basis for a revision of the program which is soon to be published. (Maryland Teachers' Year Book, 1918-1919, p. 18.) The program which has been used during the past five years is given here. It will be noted that it conforms to the same plan as have the last two discussed. It provided one curriculum, with a limited number of required subjects and an additional number of elective subjects. Starred subjects are required ones.

TABLE LI

SHOWING PROGRAM OF STUDIES FOR MARYLAND COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
English*	English*	English*	English IV*
Mathematics*	Mathematics*	Mathematics	History IV*
Science*	Manual Arts*	Science	Mathematics
Manual Arts*	Science	Latin	Science
History	Latin	German	Latin
Latin	German	French	German
German	French	Bookkeeping	French
French	Commerce	Commercial Corre-	Commercial Law
Agriculture	Agriculture	spondence	Shorthand
Home Economics	Home Economics	Shorthand	Typewriting
		Typewriting	Manual Arts
		Manual Arts	Agriculture
		Agriculture	Home Economics
		Home Economics	

Seventeen units of work were required for graduation, except where home economics or manual training had not been elected as one of the vocational subjects required by law, in which case sixteen units were accepted. There were, as noted, nine units of required work. Restrictions were thrown around elections which led to diplomas. If

one elected commercial work in the third and fourth years, it must be elected as a whole. In schools meeting Smith-Hughes requirements not more than one-half a pupil's time could be devoted to academic work. The most noticeable restriction, however, was that the *elections must be made by classes, and not by individual pupils.* (Ibid., p. 29.)

South Carolina County High Schools—Programs of Study.

There were these especially interesting features concerning the program of studies which was prepared for all the four-year high schools of South Carolina. These programs were always the same, whether they are for rural or city high schools, and the programs which the State Department had issued for the use of those schools (Programs of Study, Curriculum, and Courses of Study for Four-Year High Schools, issued by the State Department of Education, 1918) were prepared by a committee from the Department of Superintendence of the State Teachers' Association. It appeared in the type of the last three discussed. It is given in the following. Starred subjects are required.

TABLE LII
SHOWING PROGRAM OF STUDIES FOR SOUTH CAROLINA COUNTY
HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
English*	English*	English*	English*
Algebra*	Algebra*	Latin	American History and
Latin	Latin	Plane Geometry*	Civics*
General Science	Biology	Chemistry	Latin
French	Ancient History	M. and M. History	Solid Geometry
Agriculture	French	Agriculture	Advanced Algebra
	Commercial Arith-	German	Physics
	metic	Spanish	Agriculture
	Agriculture	Bookkeeping	German
		Stenography	Spanish
		Typewriting	Bookkeeping
			Stenography
			Typewriting
			Commercial Geography
			Commercial Law

The restrictions thrown around the election of these subjects caused them to group. These were classical science, modern language, and commercial. Their differences were suggested by their names.

*Louisiana, Virginia, and Texas County High Schools—
Programs of Study*

In the case of these three last-named states the programs of study were not issued by the State Department of Education; rather, they are left to be evolved by the individual schools, and were checked through the state system of inspection on the basis of university entrance requirements

and the regulations for the apportionment of the state aid. This had been true of the evolution of programs of study in the states where the district unit had prevailed. Sometimes where authority had been more definitely centralized later in a strong State Department, a program of studies uniform for all the county high schools, or in some cases for all the high schools in the state, had been planned. To this program the high schools were required to conform. In other cases it was still left to bases first described for checking.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Perhaps the fact which stood out with the greatest prominence in the present study was the increasing prominence of vocational work in these programs of study. In the schools organized for emphasizing special subjects, as agriculture and home economics, the increasing emphasis on vocational work was especially noted. This was true in the agricultural schools of Mississippi and in the farm-life high schools of North Carolina, where adapting the schools to the "Smith-Hughes" Act had made their programs of study characteristically vocational. The question which this situation brought was: *Will college-entrance requirements be modified to meet these vocational courses, or will these students be shut out of college work, except in those colleges for which their work fits them?* Another question was: *Will the students from these schools want more vocational work in college?* Or, since, for the most part, these vocational schools serve a rural population, was it sound educational policy to say to the students of these vocational schools: "Your fathers are, for the most part, farmers and artisans. These are your interests. The program of study which you will pursue will not prepare you to enter colleges of medicine, law, theology, teaching, or the colleges of liberal arts and sciences; but they are such as are related to the things around you and in which you should be most interested. If you want to go to college after you have completed these programs, you will work in the line for which these prepare you." Will the patrons of these schools approve these policies?

In regard to the first question, all that can be said is that, in general, most of the colleges of the universities and colleges have not so modified their entrance requirements that entrance to them with fifty per cent of the credits presented, vocational ones, would be possible. It is true that some universities now admit on fifteen units of high-school work, but this admission is to the university, and does not mean that colleges within the university will admit any students

whose entrance credits do not satisfy its entrance requirements; rather, it means that in the universities there are sufficient variations in requirements to take care of the permutations and combinations of credits which may be offered. The history of American colleges shows too much conservatism to indicate that any very radical modifications in their requirements for entrance will be made immediately.

That graduates from vocational high schools will wish to continue this in their college work as their major has not been indicated by such objective evidence as can be produced on the subject. A study of 125 graduates of vocational curricula of Illinois high schools and 125 nonvocational ones was made with especial reference to the extent the vocational students would elect vocational work as a continued major and as to the character of their college scholarship. (High School and Class Management, Hollister, p. 203, data compiled by J. J. Didcott.) There was no evidence to indicate that these students elected vocational work to a greater extent than did those of nonvocational curricula in high-school work, and their scholarship showed more of lowering than did those from the nonvocational. While this evidence is far from conclusive, it is sufficient to raise a number of questions in this regard.

As to whether the patrons of public high schools will sanction these policies, it is interesting to note a statement made by Hollister about three years ago. (Ibid., p. 201.) "In the light of our past history and present tendencies as to national progress," he says, "it is not likely the people who have in their keeping the interests of posterity through legislation . . . will ever permit such an ideal to be realized." Facts as facts are: A number of those county high schools have done this same thing. Whether it is because of the subsidy attached to the vocational course, which will pay at least a portion of the costs, or whether the action has been based on a sincere demand for greater recognition of vocational work, cannot alter the facts in the case. High-school programs of study have been much altered to meet the "Smith-Hughes" requirements.

In the programs of studies discussed there are two general types—the one having parallel curricula and the one which has a number of required and a number of elective courses without having a definitely set-out curricula. The schools seemed about equally divided between these two plans. The latter plan, according to Monroe (Monroe, *Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 216), represents the later development. The first plan was developed to modify

the classical curriculum of the "New England" type of high school, while this last-named plan came as the most liberal of elective plans and is what the same writer calls the "Far West" type. Administratively, its full value can only be realized when there is a sufficient number of teachers, adequate physical equipment, and other administrative provisions, so that there will not be too many required subjects. The question that must come in a small school, with a few teachers and such a plan, is: Will not the necessity for restricting free election cause this plan to be only nominally the one pursued by the school?

CHAPTER TEN

CONCLUSIONS BASED ON THE STUDY OF THE COUNTY AS A UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH

Some Conclusions Relative to Units of Administration

The legal provisions for different administrative units of secondary education showed that units in school administration in their organization usually corresponded to existing units of civil administration. In certain localities of the Middle West, as in Illinois, there was found a unit which seemed to rather ignore existing civil units and to develop around a center, which was the center of certain other activities. This same unit was observed in a number of the Southern States, developing within the county systems. An interesting problem is presented in the possibilities of this unit as a future unit of administration, but it lies outside this discussion. If the real causes for the one are the real causes for the other, then the causes which develop units of civil administration may be sought as the reasons for the development of educational units. Authorities on the development of governments differ in the reasons which they assign for the development of different units. Woodrow Wilson, in his "The State," places the emphasis on geography; Bryce, in his "American Commonwealth," thinks that the habits which different peoples brought with them, with perhaps some racial differences, are largely responsible. Taking both of these causes, it seems that if the chief causes for the development of civil units are the causes for the development of educational ones, then the causes are geography and whatever racial or acquired habits a people may have developed peculiar to themselves.

Another reason which seems somewhat plausible is that the existence of the administrative machinery of the civil units offered a strong inducement for the development of the same, rather than the working out of a new system of administration. To extend the existing administrative machinery to include an additional function is manifestly simpler than to build the machinery necessary for the establishment of a new unit. Whichever may be the real cause for the development of these different units in different sections, the conclusions which these facts seem to justify may be stated thus: *The unit of educational administration which has been most often adopted and which has seemed to*

be best adapted to any section is the one corresponding administratively most closely to the unit already developed in civil administration.

The County as a Unit of Administration in Secondary Education

The sources on government, civil and educational, which were examined seemed to agree that there were two main benefits derived from the county as a unit in administration. They were: First, the county was a step toward the centralization of administrative authority. In this respect it was superior to the "town," township, community, or district unit. Second, a consideration of the characteristics of the population and of industries, as quoted by these same authorities, indicated that the county was suited to an agricultural population, particularly in a region of large farms. It seemed adapted to most sparsely settled regions. Some possible shortcomings were indicated in the following discussions:

Maintenance of County High Schools

In the maintenance of county high schools the facts indicated inequality of effort on the part of the different counties, even allowing for widely varying abilities, with corresponding lack of adequate provisions to meet the varying demands of the different counties. This very wide variation was due, no doubt, in part, to the different needs and the different abilities existing among them. However, below a certain minimum it may reasonably be assumed to result from lack of local effort. The facts on maintenance which have been gathered do not show that the counties of the systems studied were always required to make a uniform minimum effort before profiting from state aid. In fact, a number of instances showed a total, or an almost total, lack of local effort in this direction. The unit of apportionment of state funds for maintenance universally found in this study was the school population unit. It placed no premium on regular school attendance, length of term, or the number of teachers employed. In these respects it was deemed bad, if universal prevalence means that the system employing it is handicapped in securing the enforcement of compulsory attendance, longer terms, and a maximum number of teachers. It was believed that the systems studied were not making the best use they could make of the apportionment of state funds in securing a maximum of local effort and a desirable condition in regard to these other characteristics named, and that while the

county had in many cases caused richer districts to contribute to poorer ones, they have left untouched the problem of inequality of opportunities among the counties.

Distribution and Administration of County High Schools

In a majority of the systems of county high schools the basis of approval as "first class" was whether the high school had or had not a four-year program of studies. This was sometimes set out by law as the basis for that classification. Within some of the same systems, however, almost as many three-year schools per county as four-year ones were found. A number of two-year schools are also found. Where the basis of approval was a factor in the distribution of state funds, it seemed that so much emphasis placed on the years taught might result in a corresponding lack of emphasis on other and perhaps more vital phases of the work. It was believed that the frequent occurrence of these schools, with programs covering a shorter number of years, indicated the need in county systems of a school of nine grades instead of eleven or of ten instead of twelve in case the four-year high school is built upon the eight elementary grades.

State supervision, with perhaps two exceptions, was simply inspection. In at least two instances there was an attempt on a state-wide basis to modify inspection and to make it more nearly supervision. This first-named situation placed the burden of what supervision is done on the local unit.

In most county high-school systems there were two bases for accrediting. In some cases the law set forth that only the standards set by the State Department of Education should be considered bases for accrediting. Often, however, state funds were apportioned by one set of standards, while university and college entrance was determined by another.

Physical Equipment of County High Schools

The valuation of physical equipment in buildings and sites, in library, and in laboratory equipment showed a very wide range of variations. It certainly would not be desirable to have the different phases of equipment equal in value among the different high schools. This situation would probably mean as great inequality as now exists, but there are certain minimum values below which equipment should not be permitted to go. It seemed impossible to think of the building and site of a county high school valued

at \$500 or less. Home economics equipment valued at \$1.50 meant no equipment in this field. Library equipment valued at less than it takes to provide a student with textbooks was a very small equipment. When one-fourth of the schools in a system had library equipment valued at less than it takes to buy an International Encyclopedia, it seemed that the pupils in these schools were faring badly in this respect. Instances where these conditions were found were cited in the chapter on equipment. The facts found indicated too many schools below what might arbitrarily be termed a "safe minimum" to conclude that county high schools were supplying anything like equal educational opportunity, so far as physical equipment was a factor to the students of a system.

Student Population of County High Schools

The first thing usually considered when student population is studied is the amount of elimination. On the whole, the situation in these county high schools, as it was indicated by the facts collected, were not strikingly different from elimination in the high schools in the country at large, as it had been measured in the scientific studies which have been made. In some of the systems the situation seemed slightly worse, in others slightly better, than in the country at large. The conclusion that seemed warranted was, the county as the unit of secondary educational administration had not succeeded in materially reducing the elimination. The weak holding power of the high schools is considered one of its greatest weaknesses. There is much difference of opinion among experts as to what constitute causes and as to what are the remedies for it, but all seem agreed as to the deplorable character and extent of this weakness. Another, but subordinate, fact noted from the study of population was that there was a very wide range in the number of pupils in the different schools of the different systems. Some have so small a number of students that the conclusion seems almost warranted that there will not be enough teachers and enough variation of courses offered to provide other than very limited opportunities.

Teachers in County High Schools

Salaries in three state systems showed teachers in one system getting almost four times as much as those in another. Some county high-school principals got more than eight times as much as some county high-school teachers. Some county high-school teachers get less than a dollar a

day, considering twelve months as a year and prorating their salary.

Legally required qualifications showed much variation in the things required for certification. In all systems considered there were two routes—diploma and examination. In no two states were the examination requirements the same. In only one state had it been definitely stated that the degree was to be given decided preference over the examination.

It seemed that there has not been enough required of county high-school teachers as a minimum requirement in training or in certification, nor was there sufficient minimum salary guarantee or minimum number of teachers required to insure the best conditions. The facts regarding the distribution of teachers is, some systems showed a number of one-teacher and two-teacher high schools among the approved county high schools. This must have meant that there was not a minimum number of teachers required before the school could be approved. This was not in keeping with the practice in the North Central Association, or of other similar standardizing agencies, where under other units than the county a system of secondary standards have been worked out. Measured by these standards, it would be bad.

Facts regarding the qualifications of teachers in several systems showed a number of teachers in every one of the systems who were only normal-school graduates and a number who had neither degree nor diploma. This meant there was no required minimum qualification, or, if there was, it was not enforced. This meant that children of one school would have teachers of one degree of training, while those of another school might have teachers of quite another degree.

Programs of Study—County High Schools

There were programs of study considered in several instances that prepared the student taking them for entrance only into polytechnic schools or into colleges of agriculture. There were also instances where there were no curricula which provided the work necessary for entrance into the colleges of medicine, law, or arts and sciences, as those entrance requirements are now administered. It could, perhaps, in all probability, be shown that a majority of the students in these schools would enter the occupations of their parents. It could with justice, perhaps, be said that to neglect the small per cent who will go to these other colleges named is less of an injustice than has been the neglect of those who did not intend to enter college by the tradi-

tional college-entrance program. However, there seemed no sound justification for either extreme. The facts show that a number of these county high schools have programs of study which do not offer a wide choice of curricula to the student populations which they serve. They were offering superior advantages, no doubt, in certain specific lines of training; but they were not offering very many opportunities of choice. In the cases mentioned, many times at least, there were other high schools in the county to which the student who wished college preparation could go. This study was concerned, however, only with county high schools; and as to their programs of study providing that variety of choice which was thought desirable, in several instances they did not do so.

These various conclusions set forth as theses are as follows:

1. The unit of civil administration and the unit of school administration usually correspond.

2. Two characteristics of the county unit which the sources consulted indorsed strongly were:

- (a) It is a step toward the centralization of administrative authority.

- (b) It seems especially adapted to an agricultural population that is not densely settled.

3. There was not found in all these county high schools certain minimum requirements in the way of the amount of local effort required to participate in special state aids for creating or maintaining county high schools.

4. In administration and in distribution these conclusions were indicated:

- (a) The need of a new type of approved high school, whose program of studies requires fewer years, is indicated.

- (b) There should be uniform standards of accrediting employed.

5. The high schools described in detail in Chapter Five illustrated what the facts in Chapter Four indicate: There is a development in rural high schools in the South of sufficient prominence to merit extended study.

6. Minimum requirements in physical equipment, strictly enforced, seem necessary to remedy the present extreme range of variation in the value of the physical equipment in county high schools.

7. The holding power of county high schools must be improved before they can be said to materially improve conditions as they relate to elimination.

8. There should be certain minimum requirements for

teachers' qualifications, strictly carried out. Salaries should be such as to make this practicable.

9. Either college-entrance requirements should be so modified that they will admit the graduates of those county high schools which have become in effect vocational schools, or programs of study should be provided which would include curricula to prepare for college entrance.

10. It seems doubtful, then, if the county, as a unit of administration in secondary education, has equalized sufficiently educational opportunities by controlling conditions of maintenance, distribution of schools, administrative organizations, physical equipment, student population, teaching force, and programs of study to justify advocating it as a unit of preëminent ability in this direction over other units which are elsewhere employed.

CONCLUSION

The major problem which this dissertation raises is: Does the county, as a unit of administration in secondary education, possess certain characteristics which render it perhaps a desirable unit through which to administer the high schools of the country? In attempting to solve this problem, the facts concerning county high schools and their various phases of administration have been sought. To illustrate, the facts concerning physical equipment were sought in an attempt to see how nearly the distribution of equipment brought real educational opportunities to those it served. The same purpose runs throughout the various phases of administration studied. It remains to attempt the answer to this major question as these facts seem to indicate it.

It must not be considered a condemnation of county high schools that the facts found indicated in some schools a great many things undone which in many of the same schools are done. Chapter Five illustrates a number of very successful county high schools. There were dozens of others. County high schools have done much toward bringing secondary education to rural communities. The movement is both an interesting and a notable one. The section which they serve has been greatly advanced by their service. They are chiefly responsible for the difference between the conditions described by Snyder and the ones found at present. But the facts remain that in too large a number of instances there is a paucity of equipment and unsatisfactory conditions in other phases of administration, which, when the system is considered, leaves a good many things to be desired. In an attempt to answer the chief question,

it has, perhaps, seemed that these points were stressed and some facts which relate to the most successful cases neglected. If this is true, it is because these facts seemed to answer the question raised.

The statement that the South is the most favorable section of the country for the development and successful application of the county as a unit of administration agrees with the views held by the sources which have been quoted. The facts which have been gathered attempt to show to what extent it has succeeded as a unit of secondary educational administration. Many of the facts mentioned unfavorably are, doubtless, not due to the unit; but these in varying degrees would be encountered in any section and where other conditions are perhaps less favorable.

In brief, the county high school has contributed to the South a rural high-school movement of very great importance. It has done much toward bringing free secondary education to the children of Southern counties, and it has been an effort—a most praiseworthy one—to equalize educational opportunities for the children of this section. The facts concerning these schools as they have been gathered show that equal opportunities, so far as physical equipment, teachers, and program of studies go, have not been adequately provided, that the proper amount of local effort has not been secured, and that a large enough number of children have not been enrolled and held by these systems.

If on the basis of these facts a definite answer to the major question is attempted, it would have to appear negative. This is followed by the question: Can any unit of school administration be devised which will equalize the chances provided for the children of different sections to secure an education, or must the problem be solved in another way—namely, that of convincing the portions of the public concerned of the necessity of providing more in the way of opportunities? If so, the remedy would seem to lie in school publicity.

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